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ABSTRACT

This book is about finding the evidence to help pupils discover the Romans, especially in Britain. The Romans changed the culture and landscape of Britain and left a wide range of evidence to be investigated today. Pupils need to be presented this range of evidence and the interpretations put on them. The evidence presented is both archaeological evidence and documentary evidence. The chapter titles include: (1) "Historical Background"; (2) "Roman Sites"; (3) "Documentary Sources"; (4) "Educational Approaches"; and (5) "Roman Sites across the Curriculum." A bibliography and resources section are also part of the text. (EH)

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USING ROMAN SITES

Iain Watson

ENGLISH HERITAGE

SO 029 518

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A TEACHER'S GUIDE

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Books in the *Education on Site* series are written especially for teachers to help them make the best use of the historic environment.

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SITES
Iain Watson

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CLOCKWISE FROM TOP LEFT: Gaming board found at Corbridge; coin depicting Hadrian found in the River Tyne; Ermine Street Guard and visitors; class examining the stonework of the Roman lighthouse at Dover; recording column bases at Woxeter Roman City; display of a project on the Romans at a primary school; inside the gymnasium of the baths at Wall; a model of part of the site at Wroxeter; class visiting the site at Wroxeter with the wall of the baths behind; "Spring" with a swallow on her shoulder from a mosaic at Lullingstone Roman Villa.

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ABOUT THIS BOOK

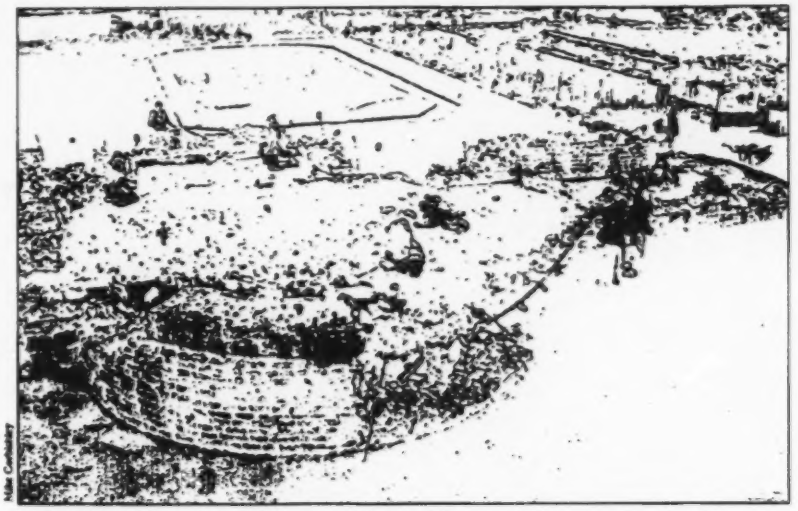
This book is about finding the evidence to help your pupils discover the Romans, especially in Britain. The Romans changed the culture and landscape of Britain and left a wide range of evidence to be investigated today. It is important to present to pupils this range of evidence, and the interpretations which have been put on it.

The evidence for the Romans in Britain takes two basic forms:

■ **archaeological evidence** - the actual remains of the Romans, whether landscapes, buildings or objects

■ **documentary evidence** - whether writings by Roman authors about their way of life or events in Britain or written evidence from modern authors.

It is important for pupils to understand that the 'Romans' were a whole mix of different peoples - 60 million people living in a number of different provinces which made up the Roman Empire and joined partly by one official language (Latin).



Nike Cavendish

Excavating the remains of the baths at Wroxeter Roman city (see page 8 and artist's impression on pages 14-15 and page 32).

Quae tam seposita est, quae gens tam barbara, Caesar
ex qua spectator non sit in urbe tua?
venit ab Orpheo cultor Rhodopeius Haemo,
venit et epoto Sarmata pastus equo,
et qui prima bibit deprehensi flumina Nili,
et quem supremae Tethyos unda ferit;
festinavit Arabs, festinavere Sabaei,
et Cilices nimbis hic maduere suis.
crinibus in nodum tortis venere Sugambri,
atque aliter tortis crinibus Aethiopes.
vox diversa sonat populorum, tum tamen una est,
cum verus patriae diceris esse pater.

What nation is so remote, Emperor, or so barbarous that someone hasn't come from it to watch the games in your city? There are farmers from the Balkans here, natives from southern Russia bred on horse's blood, people who drink the Nile's waters and even those from far away Britain. Arabs, people from the shores of the Red Sea, as well as those from southern Turkey, have hurried here and German tribesmen and Ethiopians each with their own peculiar hairstyles. Their languages all sound different, yet they all hail you with a single voice, Emperor, as the true father of our country.*

This poem was addressed to the emperor Titus in AD 80 by Marcus Valerius Martialis, known in English as Martial. The poem was to celebrate the opening of the world's greatest amphitheatre, the Colosseum. Martial grew up and was educated in one of the 'new towns' of the Roman Empire - Bilbilis in Spain. Yet Martial thought of himself as a Roman not a Spaniard and in fact lived in Rome for over 30 years.

The poem makes the point about the vast range of the Empire and its different peoples but also put Britain into that context. The province of Britain was added in the first century AD and was on the furthest limits of the Roman world. While it is clearly important to us, as a significant part of our early history, it was only a very small, and mostly insignificant part, of the Roman Empire. But one legacy of the Romans can be seen in the words of the poem itself. How many of the Latin words have given us English words we use today?

Perhaps more significant is the fact that the Roman occupation of Britain changed our landcape. We still drive along, or rather on top of, Roman roads. Many of our cities and towns were of Roman foundation. The very High Streets we now shop in may be there because they were the main streets in Roman towns.

* The word 'Britain' does not appear in the poem but we know it refers to Britain because it says that the 'wave of far away Tethys' beats on the shore. Tethys was the goddess wife of Oceanus whom the Romans thought of as the great ocean which stretched out to the province of Britain on the furthest edges of their world.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

ROMAN AND NATIVE

When the Romans invaded Britain it was not an empty country but inhabited by numerous tribes ruled by individual rulers. The different tribes in Britain had different characters and different levels of tribal organisation.

The tribes in the south and east had:

- trading and other contacts with tribes on the continent and thus with the Mediterranean world - the civilisations of Greece and Rome
- at least some large settlements or towns (sites such as St Albans and Wheathampstead are referred to as 'oppida'- meaning a small provincial town)
- a money economy, minting their own coins
- imported Mediterranean wine into Britain along with other luxury goods and in return exported slaves, tin and other goods such as corn.

The tribes of the north and west had looser tribal organisations and people probably lived in extended family units, but they were still organised societies.

In general the tribes of the south and east (such as the Atrebates and the Catuvellauni) were more readily assimilated into Roman culture and settled into a Roman way of life whilst the northern tribes continued to offer resistance to the Romans. It is difficult to estimate population figures for Britain in the Roman period but best estimates suggest that at its height the population was approximately 200,000 people living in the *vici* (civilian settlements surrounding forts) and a rural population of 2 million or more. A few people lived in villas, the rest lived an almost unchanged life in small rural agricultural settlements, presumably still speaking their own Celtic languages, the only difference in their lives being that they now paid taxes to the Romans rather than to their tribal chief.

Roman world/Modern world

Photocopy the map (below) of the Roman world at its greatest extent in the second century AD. Ask your pupils to use a modern atlas to find out:

- **how many of the Roman names are used today, without any change (for example, Syria)**
- **how many can still be guessed at easily (for example, Aegyptus)**
- **how many have provided the basis for words in modern European languages, perhaps as adjectives (for example, Gallia) or are used today for regions rather than whole countries (for example, Alpes)**
- **whether any boundaries of Roman provinces are the same as present-day ones**
- **You could also use an atlas or maps from earlier this century and compare the borders of countries then with now.**

The Roman Empire in the second century AD.

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ROMAN CONQUEST

Julius Caesar, who had been campaigning in Gaul (modern France and parts of neighbouring countries, see map on page 4), led expeditions to Britain in 55 and 54 BC, won some battles in south east England, made treaty arrangements with the tribes and imposed taxes. The conquest of Britain did not begin until AD 43 when an army of 40,000, led by the general Aulus Plautius, defeated the tribes of south east England and established Britain as a province of the Roman Empire, with a permanent Roman presence. The Emperor Claudius came from Rome and marched at the head of his army to take the capital, Camulodunum (Colchester) and received the surrender of 11 British kings (see Documentary sources page 29).

To the Romans, Britain seemed a long way away and, lying beyond the great 'Oceanus' (the English Channel), was regarded as a place of mystery. The army which invaded Britain, however, was not made up wholly of soldiers from Rome, or even Italy. Many of the soldiers would never have seen Rome. The Roman Empire recruited soldiers from the provinces it conquered and hence soldiers were of many different nationalities. Soldiers did not normally, at this time, serve in the province where they had been born and many of the soldiers of Claudius' army were from Spain and North Africa.

The first Roman sites in Britain were built for and by the army. Wherever it went the Roman army built camps to protect itself against surprise attack. The XXth legion built a fortress for itself at Camulodunum (Colchester), previously an important centre for the defeated Trinovantes tribe. This was probably one of the first major Roman sites in Britain.

Other army units moved north and west and by about AD 60 most of England south and east of a line from the Wash to the Bristol Channel was under Roman control.

As well as the military sites, Roman towns had now been established. These were organised in the same way as a Mediterranean town and had the same facilities, such as a water supply, street pattern and public buildings. Roman towns at Camulodunum, Londinium (London probably already the capital of the province) and

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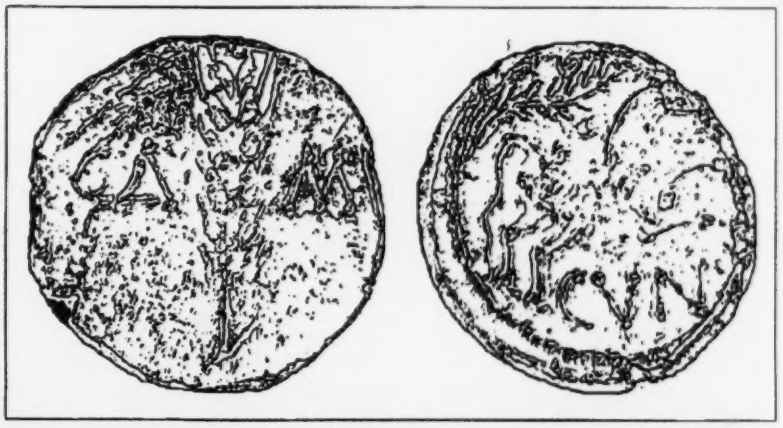
Roman Britain in AD 60 with the tribal names.



Colchester Archaeological Trust

Two coins from the pre-Roman capital at Camulodunum. One has an abbreviation of the word CAM. The other pictures a horse and part of the tribal king's name Cunobelin (CUN).

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Verulamium (St Albans, another important pre-Roman centre) were particular targets for destruction in the rebellion led by Boudica, Queen of the Iceni, in AD 60.

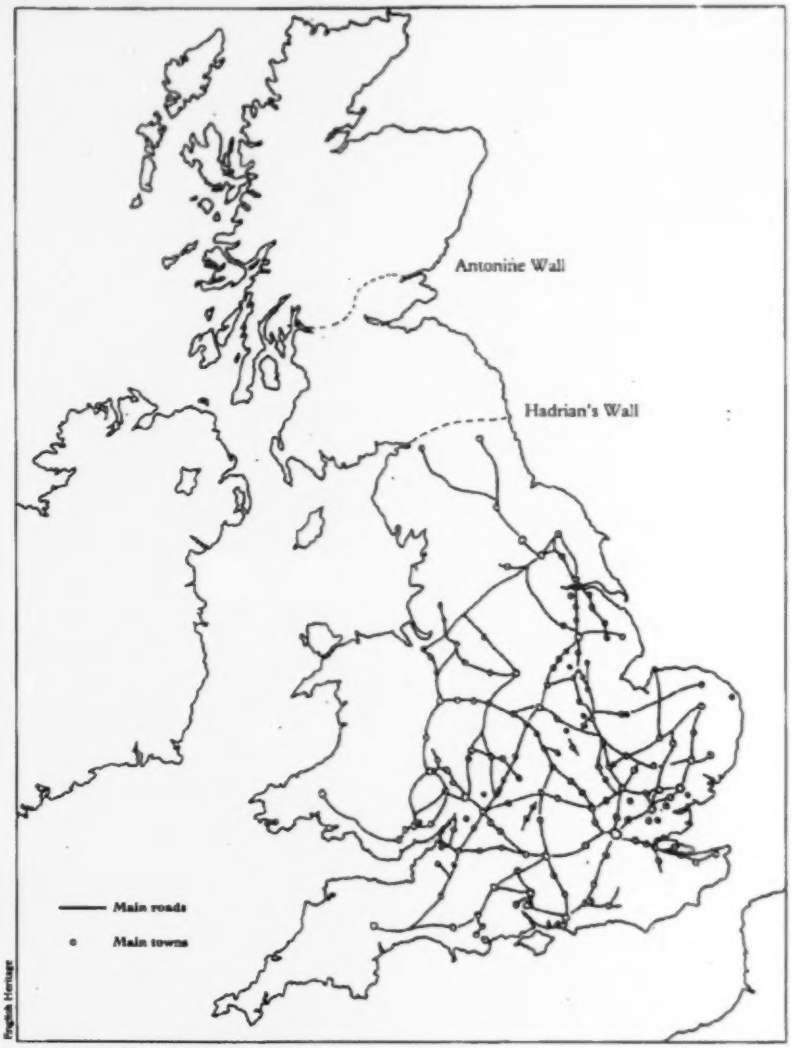
In the second half of the first century AD the army established control over Wales, northern England and southern Scotland, and there were campaigns into northern Scotland. By about AD 105 a northern frontier for Britain had been established roughly along the line that was later to become Hadrian's Wall, and the Wall itself was built about AD 122-137.

THE PROVINCE OF BRITAIN

Hadrian died in AD 138 and was succeeded as emperor by Antoninus Pius. A new northern frontier was established for Britain along a line from the Forth to the Clyde. A new wall - the Antonine Wall - was built and Hadrian's Wall was largely abandoned. It seems that about AD 159 the Antonine Wall was abandoned and Hadrian's Wall about AD 163. Hadrian's Wall was re-established as the frontier and was to survive as such for almost 250 years. The activity on the northern frontier must have been due to unrest amongst the native tribes, and attempts by the army to control them.

In the third century it was this northern frontier which gave the province of Britain the most trouble. Late in the second century the Maetae, a tribe who lived in the Falkirk/Stirling area, may have invaded the province. Repairs and some rebuilding was carried out on Hadrian's Wall in the first years of the third century and from about AD 208 until his death at York in AD 211 the Emperor Severus campaigned into northern Scotland. The campaigns of Severus and his son Caracalla began a period of peace on the northern frontier which lasted almost 100 years.

The end of the second century saw major changes in the Roman Empire as the provincial administration became more powerful and the central administration less powerful. About AD 212 the Emperor Caracalla issued an edict that all free born (ie not slave) people living in the Roman Empire should have Roman citizenship - giving them extra rights under the law and the right to hold certain offices from which they had previously



Roman Britain c AD 122.

Hadrian's Wall at Walltown Crags.

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been excluded. About the same time Britain was divided into two provinces - Britannia Superior (governed from London) and a northern province, Britannia Inferior.

By the late third century Germanic tribes, Saxons and Gauls, were carrying out raids on the shores of Britain and northern Gaul. Along the east and south coasts of Britain a series of forts were built, known as the Saxon Shore forts. In the late AD 280s power in Britain and Northern Gaul was seized by a naval commander, Carausius, and then by his finance minister, Allectus. In AD 297 Constantius Chlorus re-established Roman power and in the early fourth century the British administration was revised and four provinces were created; Prima (capital, Cirencester), Secunda (capital, York), Maxima Caesariensis (capital London) and Falvia Caesariensis (capital, Lincoln).

From the third century the number of troops in Britain was greatly reduced (the soldiers were needed elsewhere), and there were also changes in the organisation of the army. In the fourth century the power of the Roman Empire was waning and for two significant periods Britain was controlled along with other western provinces by usurpers who had seized power. Britain also increasingly suffered attacks from Scottish and Germanic tribes. There may have been a major invasion of Britain by these tribes about AD 367 and following this much rebuilding of defences at towns, at forts, and on Hadrian's Wall was carried out by Count Theodosius.

Roman Britain in the third century AD.

Roman Britain in the fourth century AD.

THE END OF ROMAN BRITAIN

In the early years of the fifth century more troops were removed from Britain and from about AD 407 the Roman Empire probably ceased to pay the few troops left in Britain. Most of them had probably grown up near or in the forts where they now lived and would have stayed there along with their wives and children, perhaps farming or working as craftspeople. AD 410 is often seen as the end of Roman Britain. In this year the Emperor Honorius, preoccupied with events in Italy (including the sack of Rome), wrote to the British that

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they could no longer rely on the Roman Empire for support and that they must look to their own defences.

By the early fifth century many towns were already in decline as a result of the unrest of the preceding years. In some places, however, town life continued into the mid fifth century with aqueducts and fountains continuing to flow. By the mid fifth century tribes from Germany (Angles and Saxons) had invaded and settled parts of south east England.

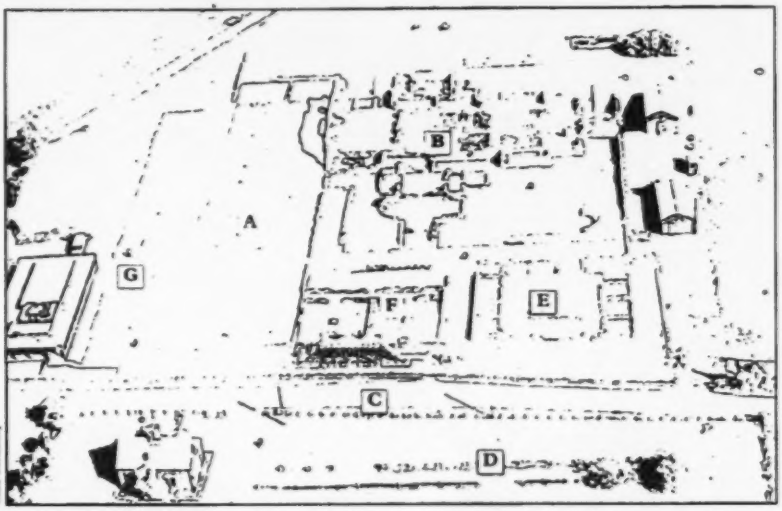
English Heritage Education Service

Pupils working on a project at Wroxeter Roman City.

Fifth-century Wroxeter

The Roman town of *Viroconium Cornoviorum* (now Wroxeter near Shrewsbury, Shropshire) began life as a series of first century Roman forts, culminating in a legionary fortress in AD 58. The XXth legion who occupied the fort abandoned it in about AD 90 and the site became a town for the Cornovii tribe. The town was developed from about AD 90 to AD 120 but the arrival of the Emperor Hadrian to Britain in AD 122 saw a re-shaping of the city centre (in particular, the forum and baths).

The town started to decline in the third and fourth centuries, probably because of widespread political unrest which affected the whole country. At the end of the period when Britain ceased to be administered by Rome in the fifth century, the town continued to be lived in. The bath's basilica was dismantled, but the site was later used as a grand residence, possibly for a tribal king. This impressive timber building was surrounded by other, classically-inspired timber houses and a market area. The centre of the city had been rebuilt along the existing streets.



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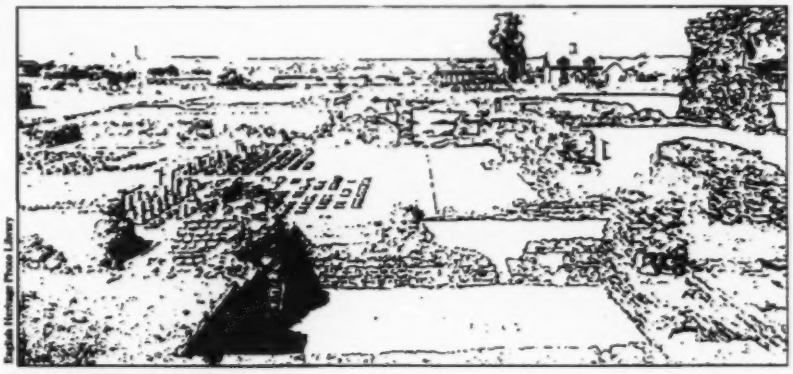
Wroxeter remains from the air. A - Basilica B - Main baths C - Main street D - Forum E - Market Hall F - Lavatory G - Street.



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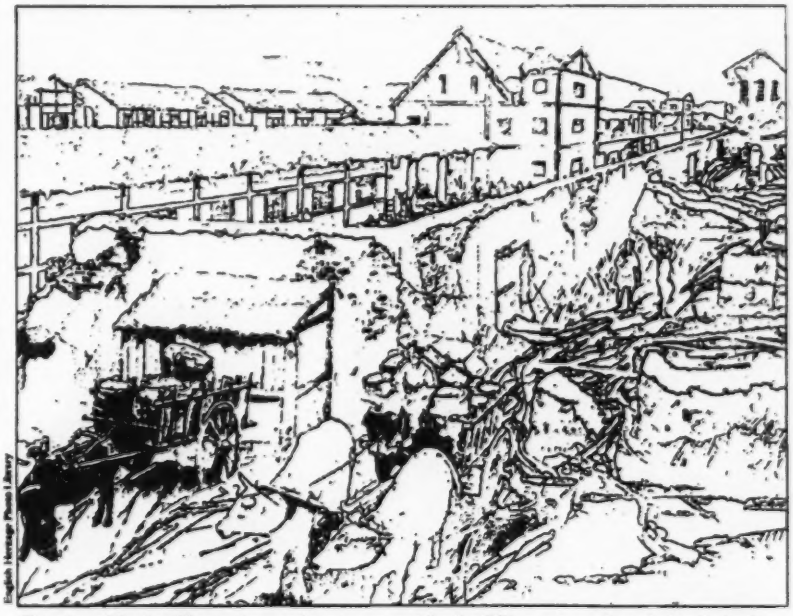
Wroxeter Roman City.



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The site of the basilica as it may have appeared in the fifth century after the baths had gone out of use. A large timber-framed winged building was constructed along the north wall of the redundant basilica.

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ROMAN SITES

The Roman occupation of Britain lasted for a period of almost 350 years. Most of mainland Britain, except the highlands of Scotland, was at some time occupied by the Romans. There are many different kinds of sites dating from the period of Roman Britain. These can be divided into two types:

■ **Native sites** - before the Romans came to Britain the country was inhabited by many different tribes. These different tribes had their own building styles and their own types of site. Most people, however, lived in round buildings, built from stone, wood or other materials depending on what was available locally. In some parts of Britain some people lived in fortified sites on hilltops, in other parts they lived in large settlements almost like towns or in more scattered small settlements.

■ **Roman sites** - Roman architectural styles were quite different to the native styles. For example, Roman buildings tended to be rectangular in shape and the more expensively-built ones could have features such as painted wall plaster and elaborately decorated floors. These sites range from simple farmhouses to sites such as forts which were built to a well-established plan, using Roman architectural techniques. At the start of the period the people living in these sorts of site would probably have come to Britain from other parts of the Roman Empire, although they may not have come from Rome itself. Gradually more of the native people adopted Roman architectural and building techniques.

This teachers' guide is concerned mainly with Roman sites. These can be divided up, by use, as follows:

- military sites
- habitation sites (such as towns and villas)
- religious and burial sites
- industrial sites
- roads, bridges and aqueducts.

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Pre-Roman houses at Chysauster, Cornwall.

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Artist's impression of part of the village of Chysauster.

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An artist's impression of the Roman city of Wroxeter, Shropshire.

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MILITARY

The Roman army

At the time of the Roman invasion of Britain, the Roman army consisted of two types of troops. *Legionaries* were very highly trained and very well paid. All legionaries were Roman citizens. This did not mean that they actually lived in Rome but that they had a certain status in society. By the time of Hadrian, for example, only about half the legionaries actually came from Italy. Legionaries were formed into units, about 5-6000 strong, called legions. Most of the soldiers in Britain were *auxiliaries*. They were less well trained and less well paid - they were also sent into battle first! The auxiliaries were organised into units of either 500 or 1000 men known as *cohorts* if they were infantry auxiliary (soldiers who fought on foot) or *alae* ('wings') if they were cavalry. Legionaries were stationed in fortresses, such as York or Colchester, and there were never more than four legions in Britain at any one time. There were many more cohorts and alae, which were based in forts, mirroring, on a smaller scale, the buildings and layout of the fortresses. Towards the end of the Roman Empire there were many changes in the Roman army and the earlier rigid organisation was lessened.

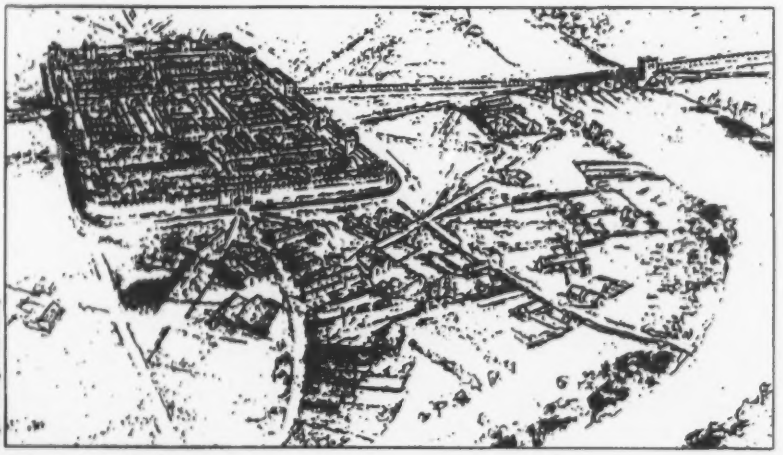
Forts and defences

Military sites were generally built to a regular pattern, particularly in the earlier part of the Roman period. A variety of building materials were used including stone, tile, timber, earth and turf. Evidence from inscriptions often records the actual soldiers who were responsible for building work.

There is a wide range of Roman military sites. The most common are fortresses (large camps built for legions) and forts (smaller camps built for auxiliaries). As well as the major forts and fortresses which were built in stone and used over many years, there are numerous marching camps which are often only detected by aerial photography. These are sites where the army camped overnight, or for a short period of time when on campaign, but dug ditches and erected a palisade to protect itself.

The best known Roman military site is Hadrian's Wall, a chain of forts, milecastles (very small forts which could hold perhaps 30 or so soldiers and provided gates through the wall) and turrets (for look out or signalling). All these sites were linked, over a distance of 117 kilometres by a stone wall up to 3.5 - 4m high and up to 3m thick. Other Roman sites connected with the Wall include bridges, a military road and a great earthwork called the *vallum* which gave added defence to the stone wall. Many forts were similar, although their layouts were not identical. Forts typically had a playing card shape - a rectangle with rounded corners. There was at least one major gate in each side and main roads ran to the centre of the site from each gate. At the centre was the most important building - the headquarters. This was normally entered through a courtyard surrounded by a colonnaded walkway; behind this was a hall with a raised platform at one or both ends. The hall was used as an assembly hall for addressing the troops.

At the back of the building were offices for the regimental clerks and the regimental shrine where the standards were kept along with a bust of the reigning emperor. The layout of the headquarters commanding officer's house were normally near to the headquarters. The granaries were strongly-built food stores. The floor was often raised to allow circulation of air and to discourage mice. The commanding officer's house was a large residence often with luxuries such as painted wall plaster, hypocaust (underfloor heating), mosaic floors and a private bath suite. Some forts also had a hospital in this area, with a series of wards and either a central operating theatre or herb garden.



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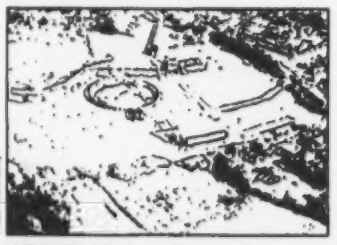
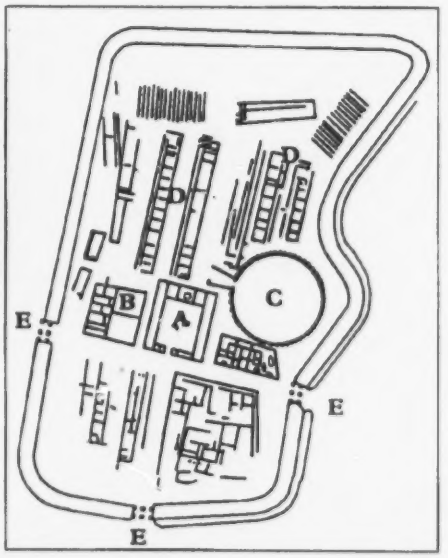
Roman fort at Chesters, on Hadrian's Wall. The Wall crosses the River Tyne.



Mike Corbishley

ABOVE: The Lunt Roman Fort, at Baginton near Coventry. After excavation, some of the buildings were reconstructed: part of the timber and earth defences and main gate and a circular training ground for horses, called a gyrus.



RIGHT: Plan of The Lunt Roman Fort.
A Headquarters building
B Commander's house
C Gyrus
D Barracks
E Gates

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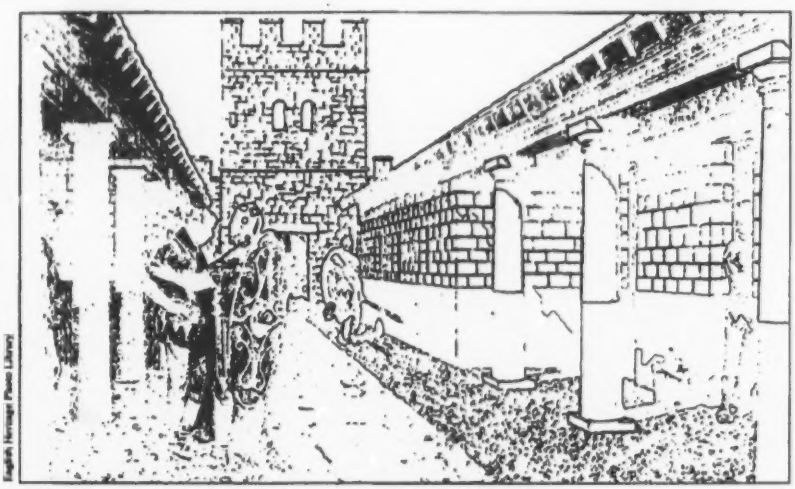
The front and back of the fort contained barracks, workshops and, in the case of alae, stables. At least until the third century the barracks consisted of long narrow buildings divided into about nine pairs of rooms. Each pair of rooms provided accommodation for a *contubernium* (' tent') for a squad of eight soldiers. There were larger quarters for the officers at the end of the block. Evidence from Housesteads and Wallsend suggests that in the late third and fourth centuries soldiers may have lived in individual chalet-style buildings, perhaps with their families. It was only after about AD 200 serving soldiers were legally allowed to marry. Stables were similar in size to barrack blocks but are identified by the lack of internal dividing walls and, often, a central drain for urine. Workshops are also of similar size.



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Artist's impression of a pair of barrack blocks at Chesters Fort.

TOWN AND COUNTRY

Roman towns

When the Romans arrived in Britain they saw nothing which they would have called a town. There were certainly large settlements with an impressive level of social organisation. But although pre-Roman defended settlements such as Danebury in Hampshire show an organised layout of streets, houses and workshops, Roman towns were identifibale from a number of planned features:

- organised grid layout of streets
- large stone building or other stone architectural features
- major civil engineering works such as aqueducts.

The towns of Roman Britain grew up in different ways. Many of them were established on or around the site of Roman forts or fortresses, others developed as the 'capitals' or tribal centres of individual tribes.

At the centre of a Roman town were the *forum* and *basilica*. At the centres of the forum was a large open space and on three sides of it were porticoes, behind which were rows of shops and offices. On the fourth side was the basilica, a long aisled hall usually with raised platforms at both ends. The magistrates conducted their business from these platforms. Offices and meeting rooms were attached to the basilica as was a shrine for statues of the emperor and any local gods. Vitruvius, the Roman author of a number of books about architecture, wrote that basilicas

'should be placed adjoining the forum in as warm a position as possible, so that in the winter businessmen may meet without being troubled by the weather'.

Many towns also had

- public baths
- a theatre
- an amphitheatre where spectacles such as wild animal fights and gladiatorial combats took place
- a number of different temples

and, in some cases,

- walls to protect the inhabitants.

Continued on page 16 »»»

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The main street of the Roman town of Wroxeter. The forum of the town is to the right.

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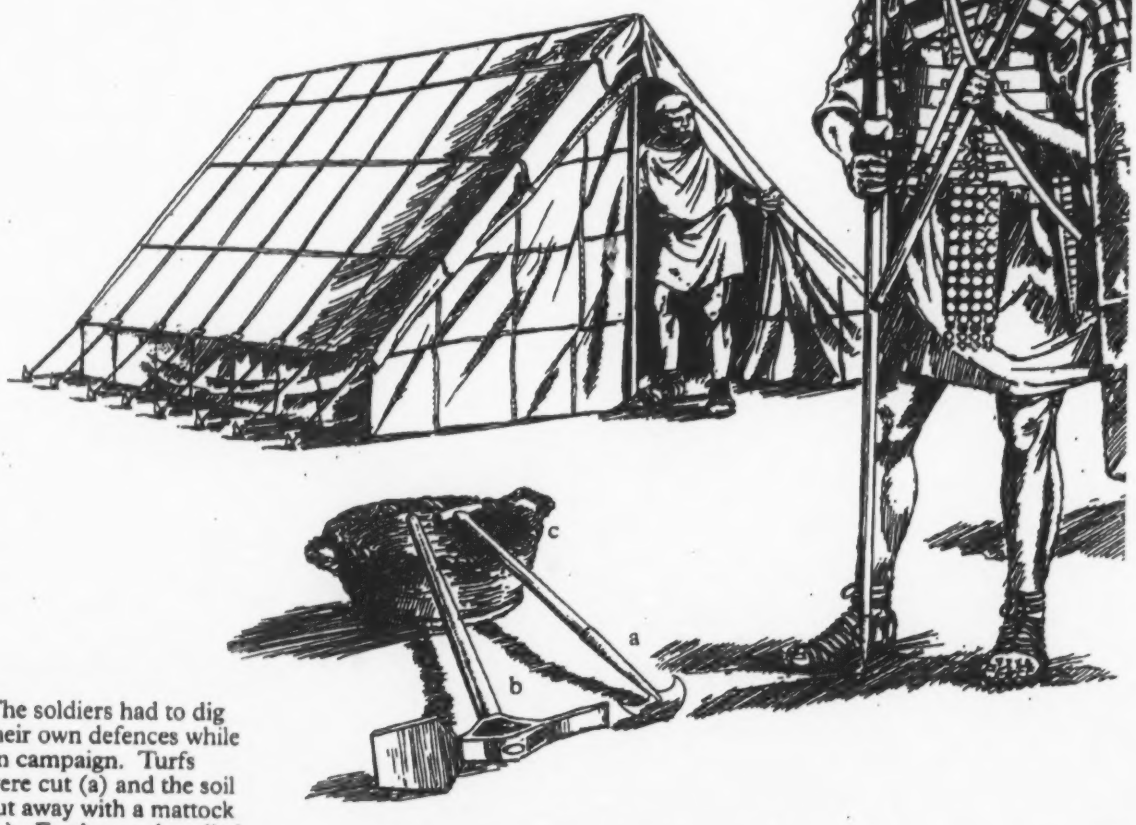
Roman Army

In temporary forts on the march, Roman soldiers slept in tents made of leather. 8 men shared a tent this size.



The soldiers had to dig their own defences while on campaign. Turfs were cut (a) and the soil cut away with a mattock (b). Earth was shovelled into baskets (c).

The legionary soldier had to carry his own equipment and personal belongings - weighing as much as 30 kilograms. A soldier was expected to march for five hours covering 24 miles (36km), carrying equipment and weapons weighing an extra 20 kilograms.

Helmets had a nec
to ward off blows f
swords and cheek
to protect the face.

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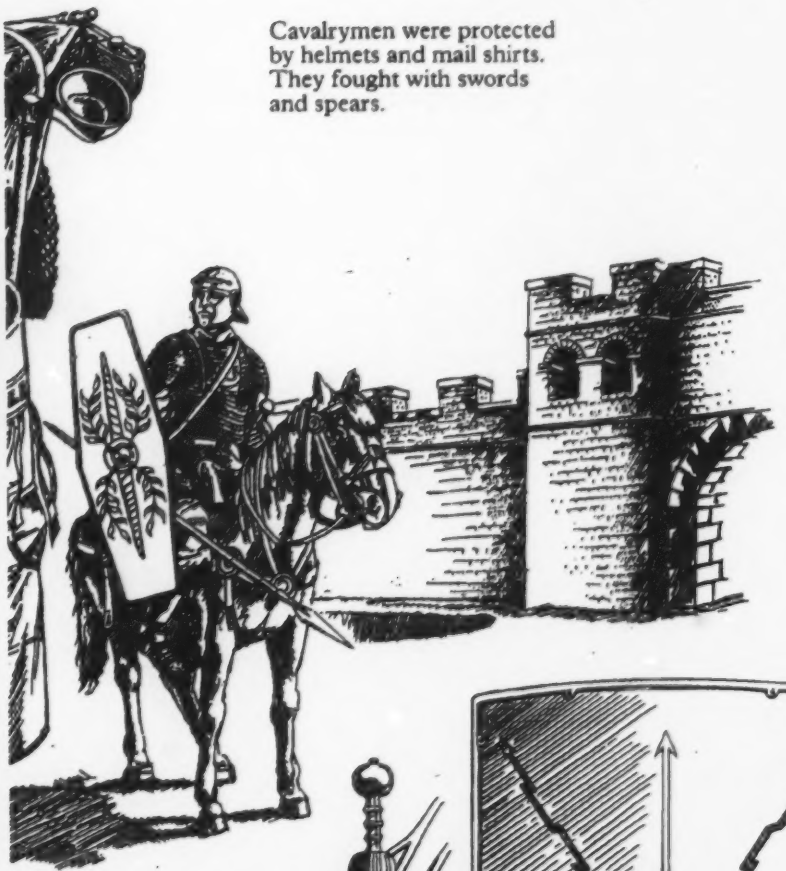
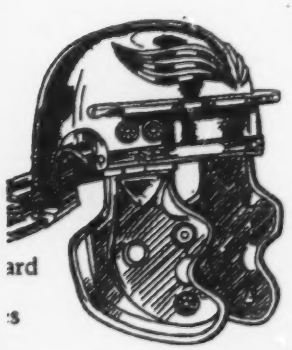


Cavalrymen were protected by helmets and mail shirts. They fought with swords and spears.

Permanent forts were built of stone with heavily-defended gateways and deep ditches outside to make attack more difficult.



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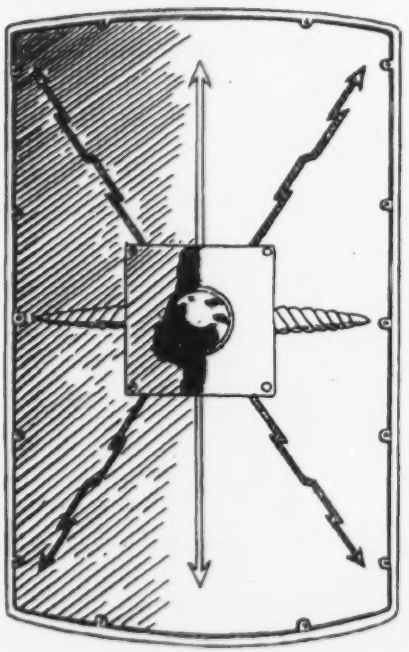

Shields, about 1m long, were made of strips of wood glued together and covered with leather hide. Behind the shield boss (in the centre) is a handle.

A legionary's sword was short and with a blade sharpened on two sides and 40-50cm long. It was carried in a scabbard.

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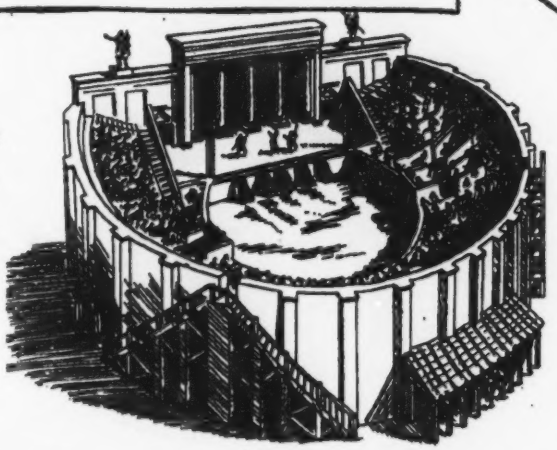
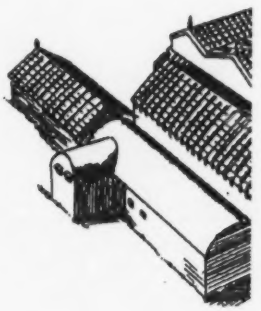
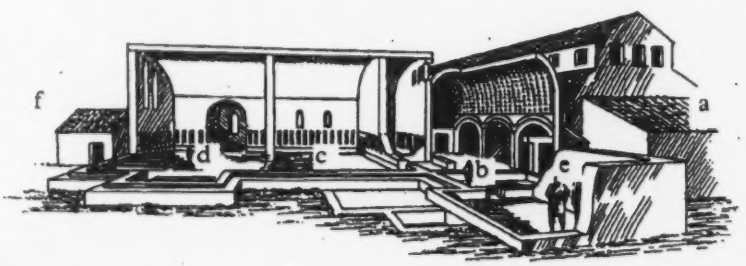
Roman Buildings



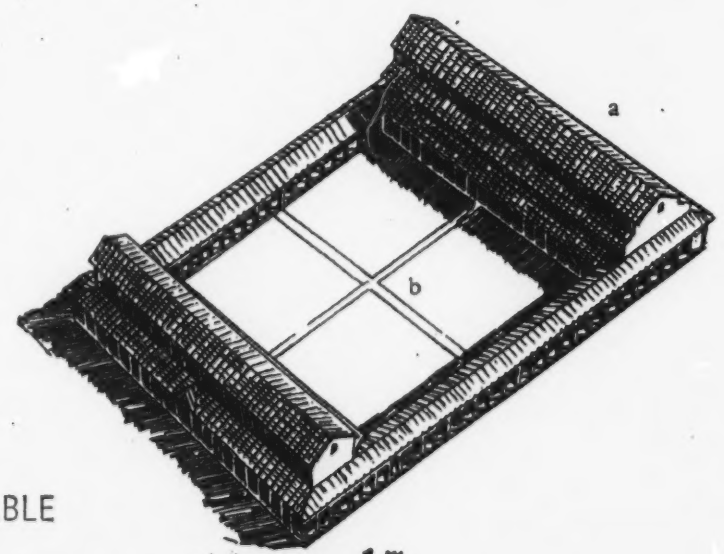
Theatre at Verulamium (St Albans, Hertfordshire). Theatres were built in a D shape. The semi-circular area was used for seating for important officials but also as an area for animal fights.



Wroxeter Roman City, Shropshire
Right: cut-away drawing of the city's main baths. You entered on right after undressing at (a) and went through a coldroom (b), a warmroom (c) and a hot, steamy room (d). There were also separate sauna (dry heat) room (e). The baths were heated by a furnace (f).



Below: the forum of the city of Wroxeter with spaces for shops, a town hall (basilica at a) and an open area (b) for market stalls or public meetings.



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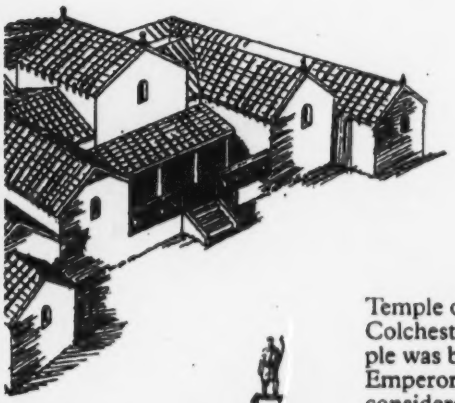
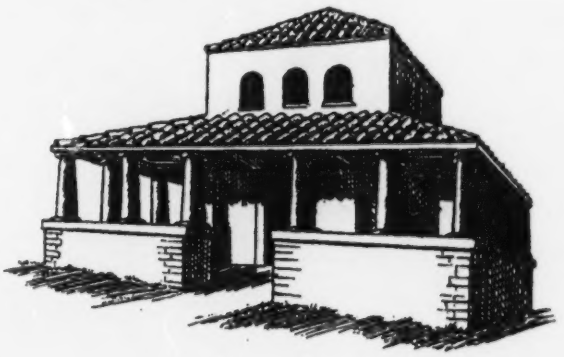
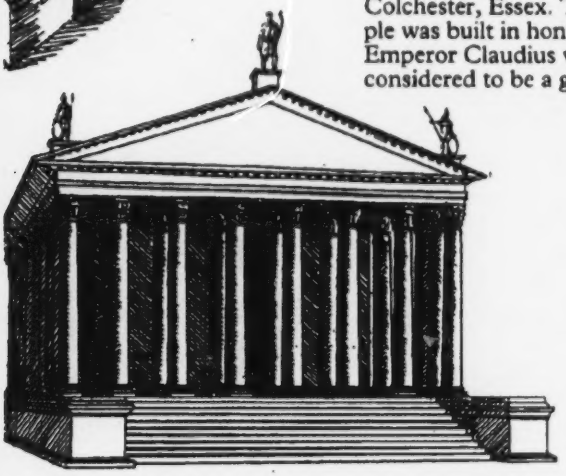
Lullingstone Roman Villa, Kent. The building was extended over a long period of time. The rooms on the left (with the arched roof) were the villa's baths.

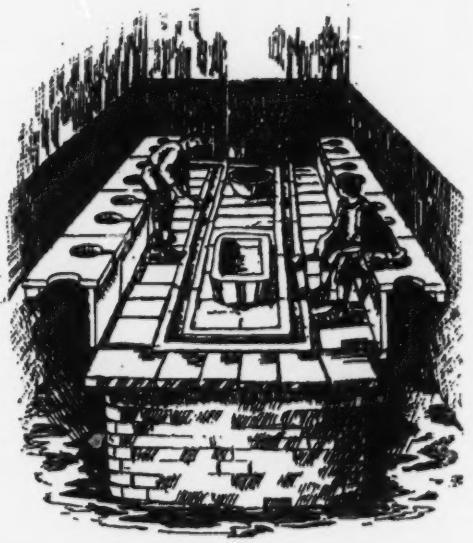


Temple at Maiden Castle, Dorset. A veranda (with a roof supported by columns) runs around the central room where various gods were worshipped.

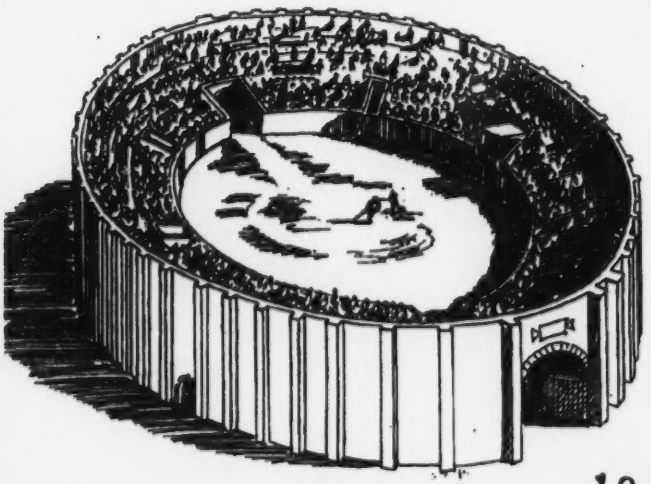


Temple of Claudius, Colchester, Essex. This temple was built in honour of the Emperor Claudius who was considered to be a god.





Lavatory at Housestead Fort, Hadrian's Wall. Soldiers cleaned themselves with sponges on sticks dipped into a channel of running water.



Caerleon amphitheatre, South Wales. Built for the entertainment of the soldiers of legionary fortress, gladiators and animals would fight there, although it must also have been used for training and ceremonies.

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CASE STUDY

Villas

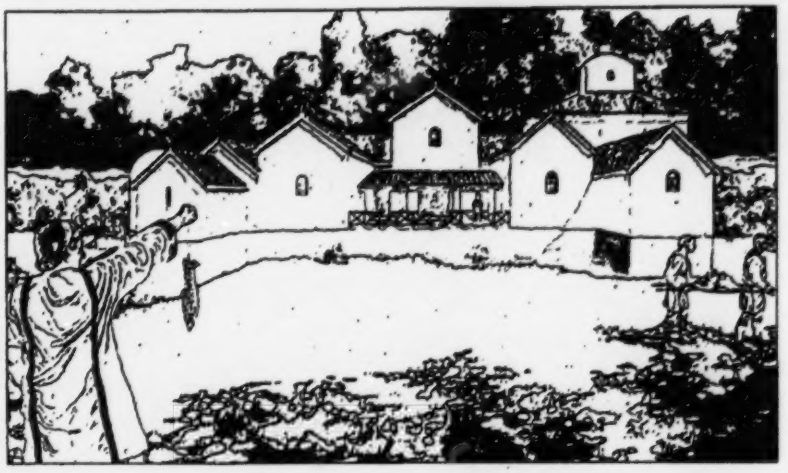
To a Roman the word *villa* meant a number of different things. It could mean a grand house in the country, sometimes with a farming estate attached to it. Some villas are basically farmhouses which show Roman influence in the style of architecture and in the fittings.

Some simple rectangular wooden buildings were probably lived in by small holders beginning to adopt Roman styles. Large, richly furnished villas may have been owned by wealthy Romans or Romano-Britons and been at the centre of large estates. In some cases the owner may not have lived in the villa, but may have had a farm manager or bailiff who was responsible for the operation of the farm and estate.

There are about 1000 known Roman villas in Britain and they are mainly concentrated in areas where the land was best for farming.

Lullingstone Roman Villa

Lullingstone Roman Villa lay at the heart of a large agricultural estate. Dating from the first century AD, it was occupied for nearly 250 years. In the second century the villa was remodelled and a bath suite added. At the end of the third century, an underfloor heating system was installed in three rooms and intricate mosaics laid. Towards the end of the fourth century the villa building was altered to accomodate a Christian chapel.



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An artist's impression of how Lullingstone Villa might have looked in about AD 350.

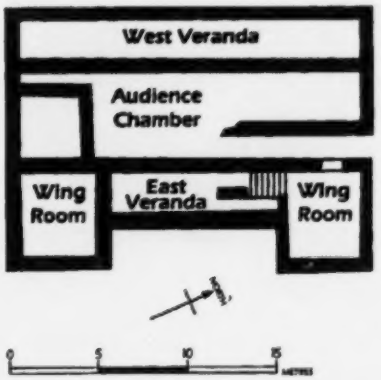
AD 80-150

Evidence

Small villa building constructed of timber and clay on footings of mortared flint (locally available stone). A block of rooms had a verandah in front and two projecting wings, one of which had a cellar below.

Interpretation

The quality of the building's construction suggests that this was a Romano-British farmer. The plan of the villa is typical of many built in this period of prosperity in Roman Britain. The cellar may have been used for storing food.



Plan of the villa in phase 1, about AD 80-150.

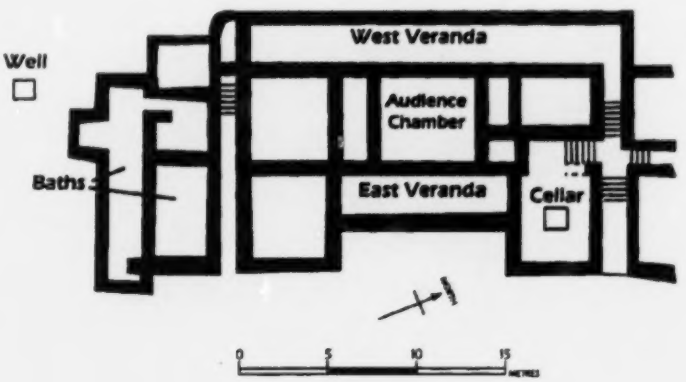
AD 150-200

Evidence

The villa is extensively altered. The basic plan has been added to on each end. The cellar now has other stairs built and has elaborate wall paintings. In the second phase of alterations a bath-suite is added. Finds from the excavations of this period include fine quality pottery and glass.

Interpretation

The wealth shown in both the finds and the alterations to the house suggest a very rich owner. The baths alone indicate great expense, not only in the construction but also in the slaves/servants needed to maintain and run it.



Plan of the villa in phase 2, about AD 150-200.

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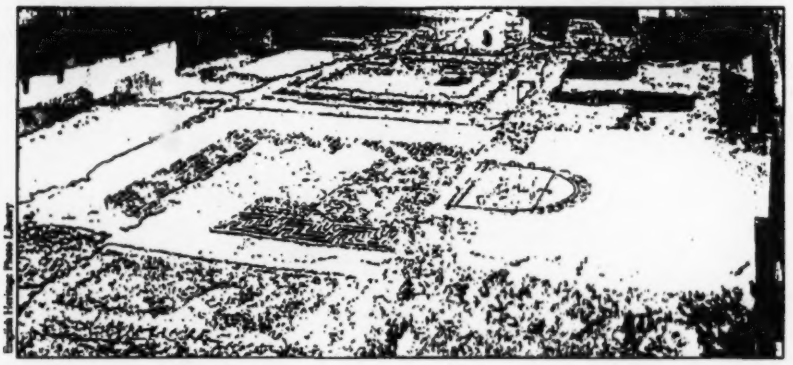
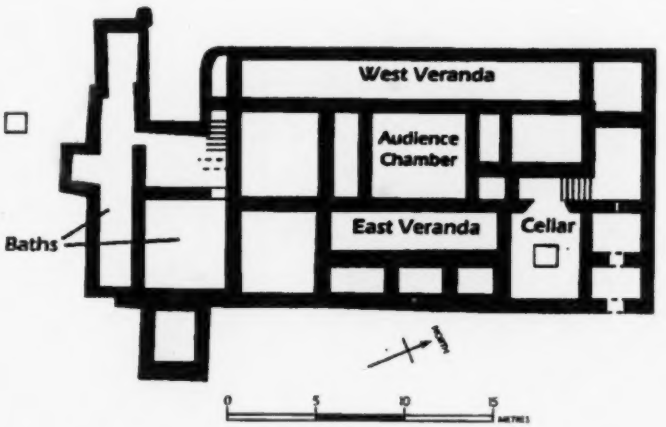


LEFT: The excavated floor of Lullingstone Roman Villa. All the information in this case study was recovered by archaeologists carefully piecing together the evidence revealed by sucessive excavations of this site.

AD 275-350

Evidence
At the end of the third century the villa is remodelled again with a row of heated rooms added. The baths were converted and enlarged. In the mid fourth century a large dining room was added in a style found in other villas and town houses throughout the Empire. Mosaic floors are also laid including one with a Latin text. Carved busts from this period were found stored in the cellar after AD 350. A large granary and a temple-mausoleum were built at this time outside the main villa building.

Interpretation
The owners were clearly wealthy to rebuild and decorate the villa but the busts, which were carved in the Mediterranean style, indicate an important person coming to the province of Britain from a more central part of the Roman Empire. The size of the granary suggests that the villa was the centre of a large agricultural estate.

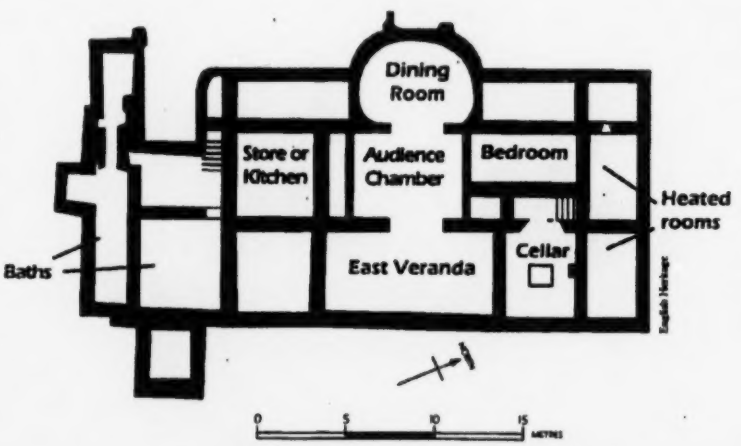


Plan of the villa in phase 3, about AD 275-350.

AD 360-425

Evidence
The heated rooms and rooms over the cellar on the north side of the villa were converted into a chapel and ante room. Wall paintings with Christian sumbols and figures decorated the walls. There was evidence of occupation into the fifth century but the baths were in disuse. A serious fire gutted much of the house.

Interpretation
The family had adopted Christianity but were still using the house. Perhaps in the early fifth century the villa became unoccupied but the chapel remained in use.



Plan of the villa in phase 4, about AD 350-425.

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A Roman Villa

An artist's i
Lullingston
the main li
went throu
room.

Personal items: carved end of a hair pin made of bone (a), twisted metal necklace (b), finger ring with carved stone inset (c) and comb carved out of bone (d).

The man is just fixing his *toga* and the woman is wearing a large shawl (called a *palla*) over her long tunic (a *stola*).

Different styles of leather sandals.

a

Writing equipment: a wooden tablet filled with wax (a) on which letter and number could be scratched using a stylus (b). Writing was also done with pens and ink (c is an inkpot) onto very thin sheets of wood.

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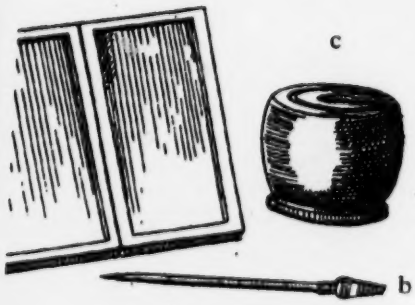
pression of rooms at
Roman Villa in Kent. From
g room, family and guests
the arch into the dining

Jug for wine
or water.

A mixing bowl called a *mortarium* with grit fired into the clay inside, used for grinding up ingredients for cooking.

Inside a Roman kitchen: *amphora* (a), wood stove (b) and a variety of saucepans, bowls and jugs.



Large pottery container for oil or wine, called an *amphora*. Another type can be seen in the kitchen above.

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RELIGION AND BURIAL

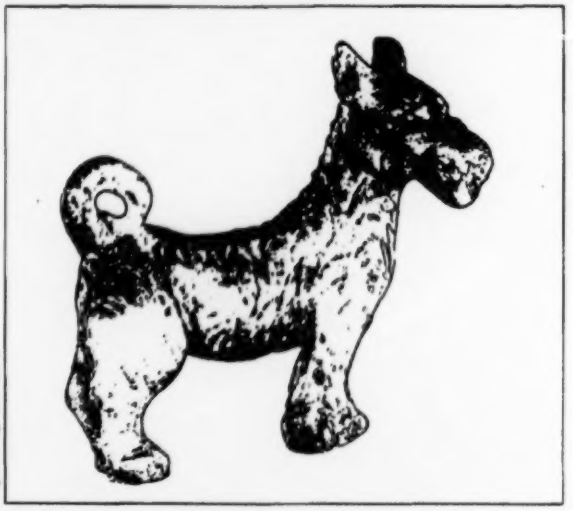
For the Romans, religion was very much part of everyday life. Every Roman house had a small shrine within it where the statues of the lares, the household gods, were kept. Offerings of food and drink were made to the *lares* and requests for favours and for protection were made to them. As well as these gods, Romans were also expected to swear allegiance to the Emperor, and to the dead emperors who were regarded as gods. It was because they refused to accept the emperors as gods that Christians were persecuted in the Roman Empire - to the Romans this suggested a dangerous lack of loyalty. Every Roman fort had a 'regimental shrine' where the standards of the regiment were kept and where there were altars to the emperor and, normally, to

- Jupiter who was the most important of the three main Roman gods, the god of the heavens
- Juno, queen of the heavens and goddess of women
- Minerva, goddess of wisdom.

In Britain as in other parts of the Empire the native people were allowed to go on worshipping their own gods although often these gods became associated with Roman gods. Many native war gods, for example, became associated with Mars, the Roman god of War. The exception to this religious tolerance was the Druids who were persecuted partly because of their practice of human sacrifice.

Temples

Roman temples were impressive classical-style buildings built by the Roman authorities as a symbol of power. The temple of Claudius at Colchester, for example, was built to impress the local people and show the power of Rome in the years after the Conquest.



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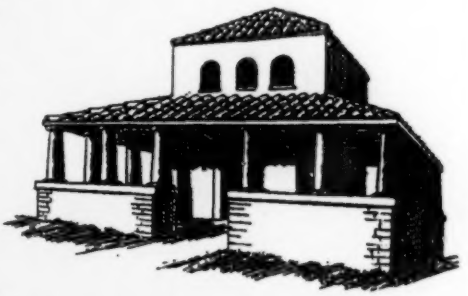
This model of a dog (probably an Aberdeen terrier) was found in a pool beside the temple to the water goddess Coventina at Carrawburgh, on Hadrian's Wall. It would have been a gift to the goddess, one of many thousands of objects, such as coins, pots and brooches.

Maiden Castle Temple



Many archaeological sites were occupied for different purposes at different times separated by hundreds or sometimes thousands of years. Maiden Castle, Dorset, has impressive banks and ditches built for defence in the Iron Age. This hillfort was captured, after a bloody battle, by the Roman army in AD 43 or 44. Three hundred or so years later a temple was built in the eastern part of the hillfort. The temple was a small square building with a precinct around it. Near to the temple were four burials.

The excavator, Mortimer Wheeler, suggested that these could be the graves of priests who had served at the temple. Finds from the temple included a bronze plaque with a figure of the goddess Minerva, a small bronze figurine with a three-horned bull god, and a fragment of a marble statuette (possibly Diana, goddess of hunting).

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Temple of Claudius

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Romano-Celtic temples were more common in Britain and Gaul (modern France and Belgium). These were small square buildings surrounded by open areas or sacred precincts in which rituals or animal sacrifices could be performed. Sometimes, as at Lullingstone, burials took place in this type of temple.

Activities that took place around temples included:

- sacrifice of animals
- erection of altars on which offerings of corn or wine could be made and small fires lit
- ritual meals, using flagons (for wine), *paterae* (shallow saucepan-like bowls), large platters and spoons
- writing of requests to the gods asking for favours in return for making offerings to the gods

For example, a man called Silvianus wrote a message to the god Nodens at Lydney: *'To the god Nodens, Silvianus has lost a ring, he promises half its value to Nodens. Let him not grant health to anyone called Senicianus* [accused of stealing the ring] *until he brings it back to the temple of Nodens.'* Curses and requests of this type are common as are altars thanking the gods for fulfilling requests. Often the 'deal' was that the individual promised to erect an altar if the god helped him or her. The altar was then erected with the letters VSLM on the bottom standing for votum solvit libens merito, meaning 'willingly and deservedly fulfilled the vow'.

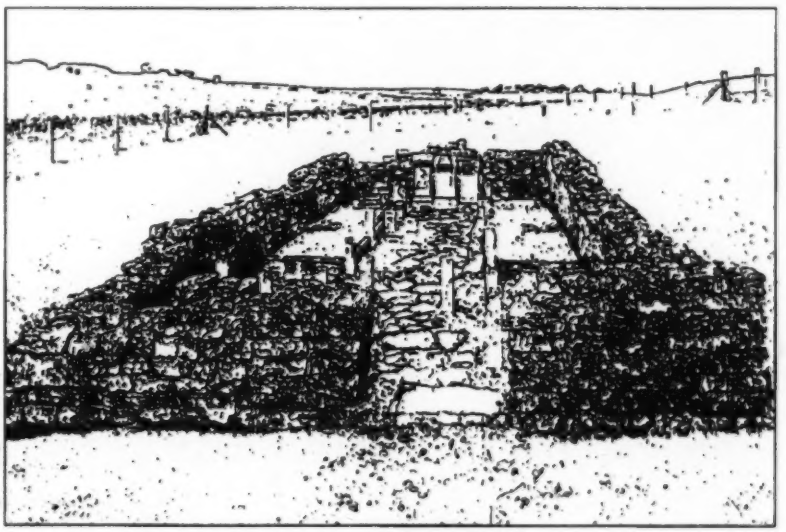
- offering of objects, either valuable objects (such as gold or fine glassware) or symbolic objects - a farmer might deposit a miniature clay or bronze model of a piece of farm equipment to help his crops.

The Romans felt they had a very close relationship with the gods and the Emperor Marcus Aurelius (AD 161-180) wrote *'So then for the gods, by the daily experience that I have of their power, and providence towards myself and others, I know certainly that they exist and therefore I worship them.'*

Other religions

As well as the traditional Roman religion, the Romans brought with them other religions from the Middle East, notably Christianity and Mithraism. Mithraism originated in Iran and was based on the legend of Mithras slaying a bull in a dark cave - Mithraic temples were built to represent this dark cave. The remains of Mithraeums can be seen at Carrawburgh on Hadrian's Wall and in Queen Victoria Street, London.

For much of the period of Roman Britain Christianity was an outlawed religion and was not legalised until the Edict of Milan in AD 313. Christian worship before AD 313 must therefore have taken place in secret. Even after AD 313 there are few remains of what could be called churches although some villas certainly had rooms with Christian decoration, and these rooms may have been used as chapels.



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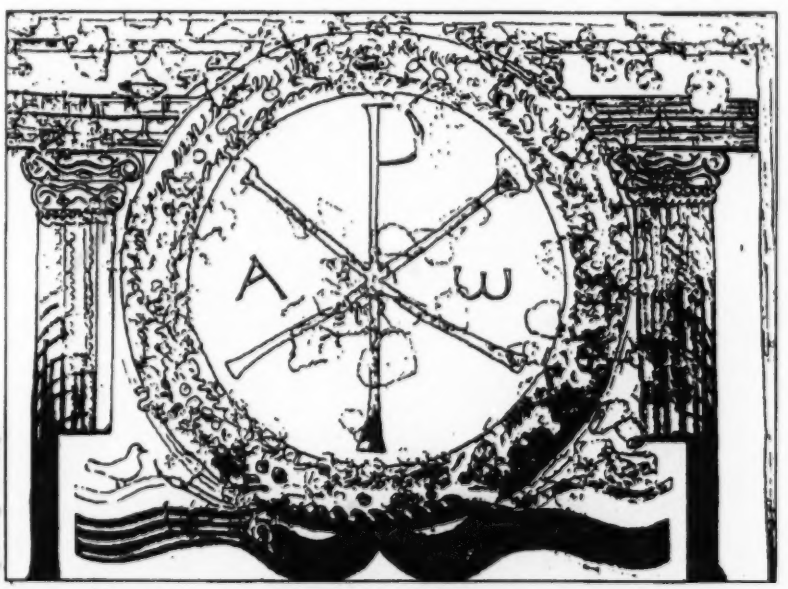
The temple to Mithras at Carrawburgh, on Hadrian's Wall.



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Reconstruction of painted wall plaster from Lullingstone showing the symbols associated with early Christianity - The first two letters of Christ X (CH) P (R) in Greek and alpha and omega.

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When a person died, the body was carried on a bier in a procession to the cemetery which had, by law, to be outside the town's walls. Trumpeters or flute players led paid mourners and dancers while the relatives walked behind.

Burial

Evidence for burial is particularly important because gravestones often record information about the deceased which does not survive elsewhere. Some gravestones also have carvings of the deceased on them. Many ordinary people would be buried without any carved tombstone, although the grave might have been marked with a mound of earth, a pile of stones, or some wooden marker. Some people saved money specifically to be used for their burial and tombstone. There were also 'burial clubs' where you paid a regular subscription and the 'club' would pay for your burial. These 'clubs' were popular with soldiers.

There are different styles of Roman tombstones but many use the same series of Latin words and phrases and it is therefore often possible to work out what the inscription on a tombstone means, even if you are not a Latin expert. The complication is that because carving on stone was time-consuming (and expensive) words were very often abbreviated.

The main pieces of information you normally find on a tombstone are:

- some reference to the gods
- the name of the dead person
- how old the dead person was.

You also often find:

- the name of the person who put up the tombstone
- the letters H S E (see table).

Deciphering Roman tombstones

Here is a guide to some phrases found on tombstones:

Abbreviation	Latin	English meaning
D M	Dis Manibus	To the spirits of the dead
V or VIX	vixit	Lived
AN	annos or annorum	Years
D	dies	Days
F C	faciendum curavit	Had this made
P C	poniendum curavit	Had this set up
H S E	hic situs est	Is buried here
S	sacrum	Sacred
M	miles	Soldier

To read a Roman tombstone you will also need to know the Roman numerals

I	1
II	2
III	3
IV or IIII	4
V	5
VI	6
VII	7
VIII	8
IX	9
X	10
L	50
C	100

For example:

XLI or XXXXI 41

XXV 25

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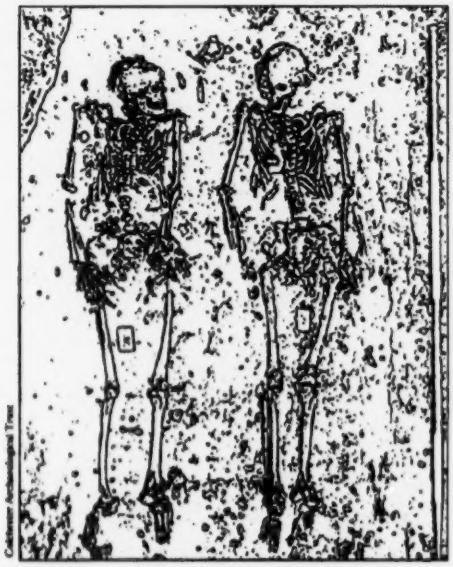
Burial practice
It was forbidden to bury anyone within the limits or walls of a town and therefore the roads leading out of towns were usually lined with burials.

- People were often buried with food and drink so that they would not go hungry in the next life.

- They were often buried with money, with favourite objects, or with games or things to do.

In the temple mausoleum at Lullingstone a young man in his early twenties was buried in a lead coffin along with two flagons, four glass bottles, two glass bottles, two knives, two spoons, and wooden games board with 30 glass counters.



Colchester Archaeological Trust

The remains of Romans buried at one of the cemeteries outside the walls of Roman Colchester. These two people (woman, left and man, right) were buried in coffins in a timber vault.

Colchester Museum

This is the tombstone of a centurion, Facilis, who died in Colchester. The inscription translates as: 'Marcus Favonius Facilis, son of Marcus, of the Pollian voting tribe, centurion of the Twentieth Legion, lies buried here. Verecundus and Novicius, his freed slaves, set this up.'

The figure of Facilis is just over a metre high. He is wearing full centurion's dress (except for his helmet, which is left off because it would mask his face): for protection, a moulded bronze breast plate, overlapping strips of metal like a skirt and leg guards; for warmth, a cloak, a woollen tunic under his armour, and sandals. He carries a dagger on one side and on the other short sword. He is holding in his right hand a stick made from vine-wood. It symbolises the centurion's right to flog men under his command. The tombstone, like most others, was originally painted.

This tombstone was found in 1868 in a Roman burial ground on the west side of Colchester and can be dated about AD48. Three clues give us some idea of the date: first there was found nearby a lead container, containing the cremated bones of a man, and a pottery cup (dated about AD50). Second we know from other inscriptions that the Twentieth Legion moved to Gloucester in AD49 when *colonia* was established. Third, Facilis' face had been damaged, probably when the tombstone was overthrown by Boudica's army in AD60.

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INDUSTRY

There were a number of industries in Roman Britain to provide for the army and for the towns and villas. They also brought wealth into the Roman government. Some industries, such as the mining of metal ores were probably, at least initially, under official control. Others such as glassmaking or leather working were carried out by individual craftsmen. There are few known dedicated Roman industrial sites in Britain, although workshops are well-known both in towns and at forts.

There was Roman **gold** mining at Dolaucothi in Wales, whilst small crucibles which had been used for heating gold indicated the presence of a goldsmith's workshop at Verulamium (St Albans).

At Silchester (Hampshire), hearths where **lead** ores were heated to extract the small amount of silver present have been found. When lead is extracted from its ore it is normally cast into metal blocks or pigs which are then transported to where the metal is wanted, where they can be easily worked. These pigs weighed 80-90 kg and the moulds in which they were cast were inscribed, providing evidence of the companies working the mines.

Tin was mined in Cornwall and Devon and **copper** was mined in Cornwall, Shropshire and Wales. The main mining of **iron** ore took place in Sussex, Kent, the Forest of Dean, Northamptonshire and Lincolnshire. Because of the high temperature needed to smelt iron ore into iron ore (around 1300 deg C) the iron smelting furnaces were quite substantial. The remains of a number of Roman iron smelting furnaces have been found in Kent.

Stone was used extensively, not only for building but also for purposes such as making querns, or millstones, and for grinding corn into flour. The site known as Pen Pits, near Mere in Somerset, which consists of an extensive series of large pits is thought to have been a quarry for quernstones.

A number of quarry sites are known, particularly on and around Hadrian's Wall. At Coombe Crag, near Birdoswald, graffiti carved by Roman soldiers quarrying stone for the repair or building of the wall can still be seen.

Another very large industry in Roman Britain was the production of **brick, tile** and **pottery**. In each case clay was dug from the ground, shaped in moulds or on a potter's wheel, and then heated in a kiln to 'fire' the material. Much of this work was carried out by the army and tile is often stamped with the name of the unit responsible for making it.

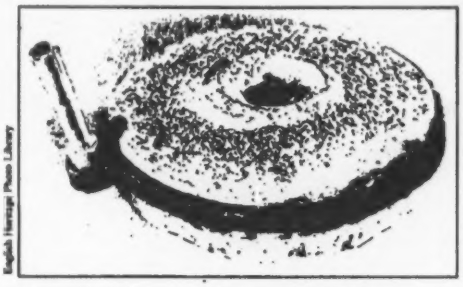
English Heritage Photo Library

Tile from Aldborough Roman Town stamped by the Ninth Legion. HISP refers to legion's distinguished service in Spain.

Some pottery production centres were very large. For example at Water Newton in Cambridgeshire, and at Alice Holt Forest, in Hampshire, pottery was produced which was traded all over Britain and beyond. Huge dumps at Alice Holt made of kiln wasters (pots which had not been fired properly) and the remains of old kilns can still be seen in the undergrowth around the site.

Glass-making also involved heating material to high temperatures to fuse it into glass. At Wilderspool in Cheshire a furnace was excavated which contained crucibles and the remains of molten glass, and there is also evidence of glassmaking from excavations at Colchester, Leicester and other sites.

A variety of other crafts and industries took place at or around Roman sites. Some of them were concentrated in specialist production centres. Others were carried out on a small scale where required. The included: spinning and weaving, leatherwork, bone work, mosaic making, carpentry.



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Quernstone found at Chesters Roman Fort.

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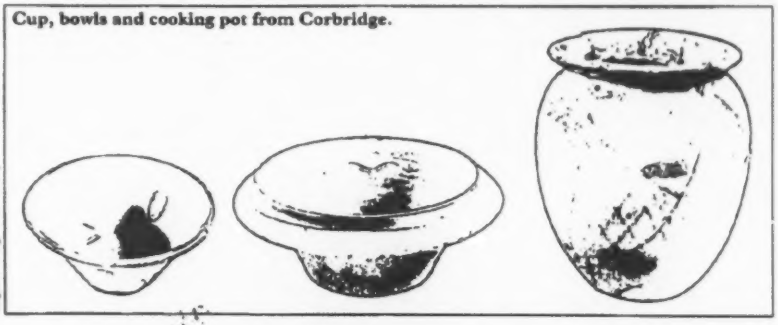
Bronze jug from Corbridge.

Cup, bowls and cooking pot from Corbridge.



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ROADS, BRIDGES AND AQUEDUCTS

Roads

It was the impressive network of roads, originally constructed by the highly skilled soldiers, which allowed the Roman army to establish effective control over areas such as Britain.

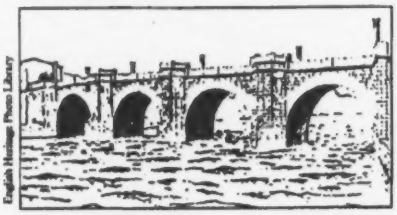
The word mile comes from the Latin *milia passuum*, meaning '1000 paces'. One Roman pace was what we would call two steps, left and right and, based on a standard stride, the Roman mile is 1536 metres, slightly less than a statute mile which is 1680 metres.

Roads were generally laid out by surveyors working from one hill

Watling Street, Northamptonshire. This was one of the main roads of Roman Britain, running from Richborough through London, St Albans (Verulamium) and Wroxeter into north Wales.

top to the next. Fires and beacons would be used to make the hilltops clearly visible. Roman roads, however, did not always run in absolutely straight lines. Zigzags were used to climb steep slopes and when a river was to be crossed the line of the road often deviated from the straight to a point where the river could be forded - bridges were vulnerable to attack and were only built where there was no alternative.

A typical Roman road consists of a hump or *'agger'* which was made by digging ditches on either side and piling the material to form the road base. A foundation of large stone was then laid on this and smaller stones or gravel (or whatever material was available locally) were used to create the final surface. The road had a steep camber, that is it sloped from the centre to each side to encourage rain to drain away. The ditches also helped drainage. In some cases, as on Dere Street, the road from York to Corbridge, Hadrian's Wall and Scotland, stone drains ran along the side of the road.



An artist's impression of the stone bridge at Chesters Roman Fort.

Bridges

Most bridges were probably built entirely of timber like the bridge over the River Nene at Aldwinkle in Northamptonshire, the remains of which were discovered during gravel extraction.

In the north of Britain masonry abutments and piers were often used with either masonry or wooden superstructures. At Chesters the bridge probably originally had stone arches, as voussoirs have been found, but was later replaced by a bridge with a wooden superstructure. When building piers in the river the builders would have constructed a watertight 'box', or coffer dam, out of wood with the joints sealed with clay. This would then have been baled out and the pier built inside it.

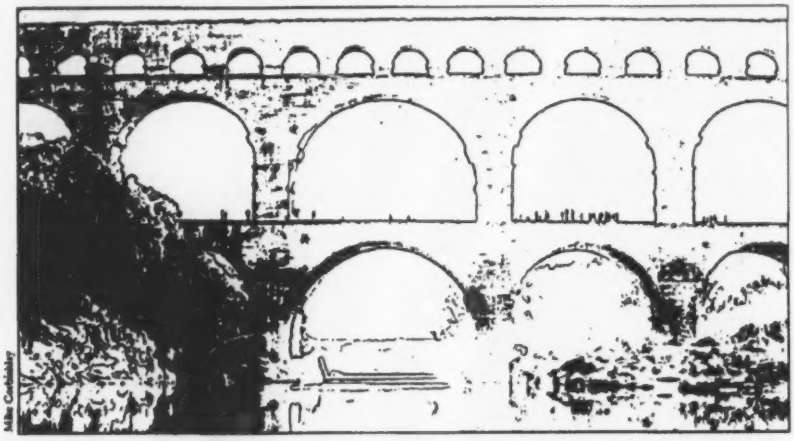
Aqueducts

Whilst many building and engineering techniques used by the Romans were of Greek origin, the use of arches, vaults and domes and of construction with fired brick, mortar and concrete were Roman achievements. It was these techniques which the Romans brought to Britain and used in the building of bridges and aqueducts.

Every major town in Roman Britain was supplied with fresh water from an aqueduct. The water was distributed by wood, lead, stone or ceramic (pottery) pipes. Most of the water was channelled to public baths although there were sometimes drinking basins at street corners. Some private houses had a supply of piped water, for which they would pay a water rate. Others had to rely on wells, or carrying water from springs or streams.

This earth-cut channel brought about 25,000,000 gallons of water daily to the Roman town of Durnovaria (Dorchester).

No aqueduct in Britain has been found on the scale of the Pont du Gard. Most aqueducts consisted of carefully constructed open channels bringing water, by gravity, from the nearest, sufficiently high source of water. One exception seems to be Lincoln where archaeologists suggest that there was a pressurised supply to cross valleys along the route of the aqueduct.



Pont du Gard, France carried water to the Roman town of Nimes, in Provence, south of France.

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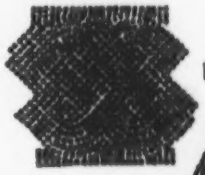
Crafts and Industries

Skilled painters used m
natural earth colours (r
and yellow ochre, green
and chalk white). Black
came from soot and bri
colours from a variety c
ingredients.

Plastering a wall involved putting on a number of thin layers.

Part of wall painting from a Roman house in Colchester, Essex. It shows a gladiator holding up one finger to show that he has been beaten and is asking the crowd for mercy.



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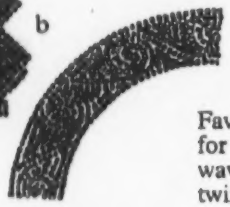
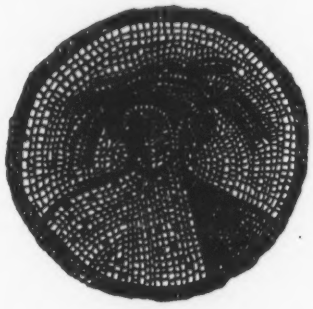


a

Favourite patterns for mosaics were waves (a) and intertwining designs (b).



(J) One of the mosaics from Lullingstone Roman Villa in Kent picturing 'Summer'.

Making a mosaic floor involved setting hundreds o little pieces of cut stone and tile (called *tesserae*) into con plicated patterns.

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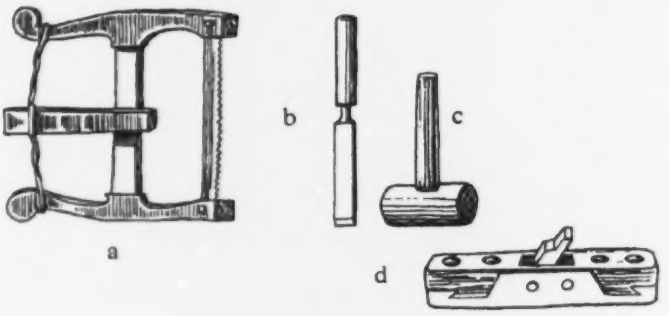
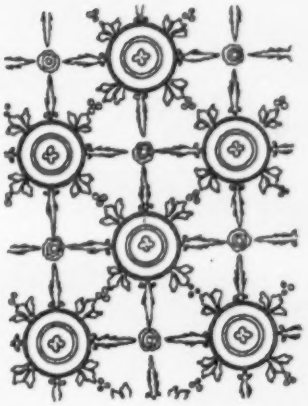
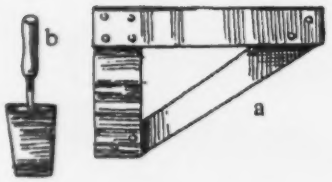
Woodworking tools: saw (a), chisel (b), mallet (c) and plane (d).

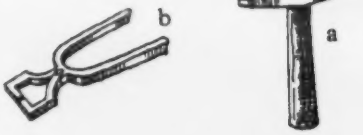


'Wallpaper' style wall painting from Silchester, Hampshire.

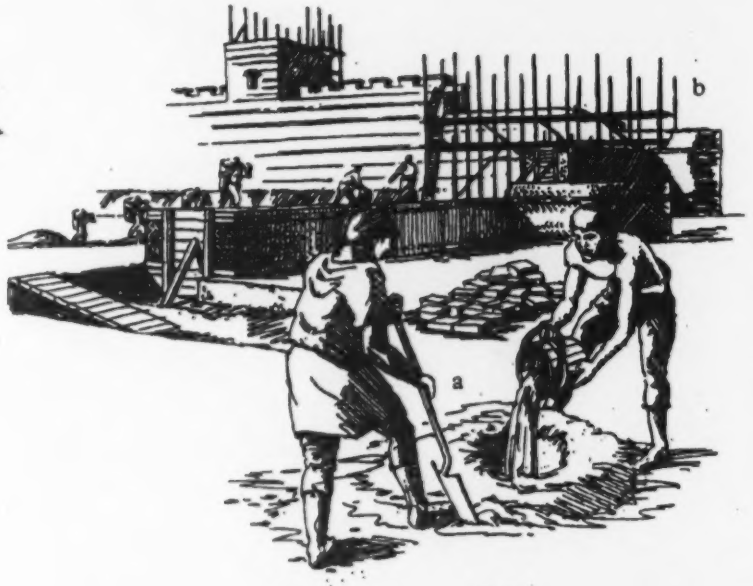




Builder's tools: set square (a) for making a right angle and trowel (b).



Blacksmith's tools: hammer (a) and pliers (b) for holding the metal in the furnace.



Building the walls at Portchester Roman Fort. Lime powder (burnt limestone), sand and water were mixed to make mortar (a) to hold the stones together. Wooden scaffolding (b) was used to help construct the upper levels.

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DOCUMENTARY SOURCES

The principal documentary sources available for Roman Britain are:

Roman texts which have survived in their original form (although possibly damaged over time) - for example,

- inscriptions (including building inscriptions, gravestones, milestone, altars, monuments)
- graffiti
- stamps on pottery
- papyrus from the Near East
- wax tablets or wooden writing tablets from sites such as Vindolanda and Carlisle
- writing in mosaic floors or on wall paintings.

Roman texts which have survived through being copied in the medieval period.

Later writings describing Roman remains.

WOODEN WRITING TABLETS

Wooden writing tablets are the oldest known handwritten documents from Britain. A large number of fragments of tablets have been found at Vindolanda on Hadrian's Wall, preserved by the waterlogged acid soil. The writing tablets date to the late first century AD, 20-30 years before Hadrian's Wall was built. In most cases the texts are written in ink on wafer-thin leaves of wood. Although generally only small fragments have been found and not complete letters, they form an important record of life in the fort. They include letters about ordinary domestic matters such as a soldier receiving a parcel from home:

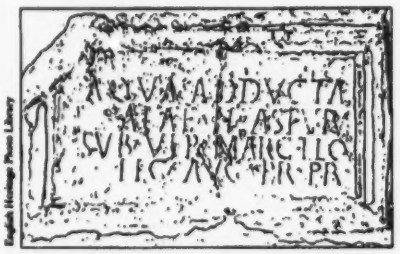
....I have sent you....pairs of socks from Sattua two pairs of sandals and two pairs of underpants, two pairs of sandals....

Other writing tablets were more elabrately made. One wooden tablet found at the Walbrook, London, had originally had a surface of wax into which writing was scratched with a stylus. All the wax had disappeared but some of the text had been scored through into the wood:

Rufus, Son of Callisunus, greeting to Epilicus and all his fellows. I believe you know that I am very well. If you have made the list please send. Do look after everything carefully. See that you turn that slave-girl into cash.....

INSCRIPTIONS

Inscriptions on stone survive from many sites. These include official building inscriptions such as this one from the fort of Chesters on Hadrian's Wall which records the provision of a water supply (*AQVA ADDVCTA*).



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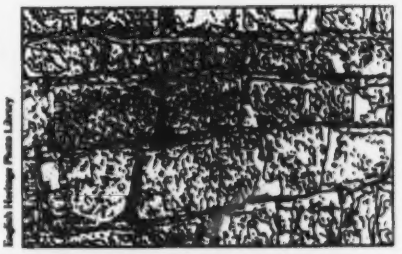
This inscription from Chesters records the provision of a water supply (*aqua adducta*) by the Second Cohort of Asturians (which had originally been raised in north-west Spain) under the governor Ulpius Marcellus.

Hadrian's Wall itself contains a number of inscribed stones recording the work of particular companies of soldiers. This one, between Harrow's Scar milecastle and Birdoswald fort, records the building of a section by the century (a unit of 100 men) of Terentius.



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The centurial stone, Birdoswald Fort, Hadrian's Wall.

ROMAN LITERATURE

The writings of a number of Roman authors have survived through being copied out by monks. You can use examples from Roman literature to illustrate Roman life, for example

- poems and letters often tell us about ordinary peoples' lives
- histories plot the story of Rome's growth
- architectural and building manuals explain how buildings were constructed and used
- recipes and menus tell us the eating habits of the Romans.

Two examples can ilustrate this point.

At the baths

I live over the public baths - you know what that means. Ugh! It's sickening. First there are the 'strongmen' doing their exercises and swinging heavy lead weights about with grunts and groans. Next there are the lazy ones having a cheap massage - I can hear someone being slapped on the shoulders. Then there is the noise of a brawler or a thief being arrested and the man who always likes the sound of his own voice in the bath. And what about the ones who leap into the pool making a huge splash as they hit the water!

Lucius Seneca, around AD 63.

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Home-made sweets

'Stuffed dates: Stone the dates and stuff with nuts, pine kernels or ground pepper. Roll them in salt and fry in warmed honey, then serve.'

'Honeyed bread: Remove the crust from a wholewheat loaf and break into largish pieces. Soak them in milk, fry in oil, then pour honey over and serve.'
Marcus Apicius' recipe book, first century AD.

Documentary evidence about Roman Britain

The first Roman attempt to conquer Britain was described by the Greek historian Strabo, who died twenty years before Claudius' invasion of Britain:

'The deified Caesar crossed over twice to the island, but came back in haste without accomplishing much or proceeding very far inland... However, he won two or three victories over the Britons, although he took over only two legions, bringing back hostages, slaves and much other booty.'

Other authors described the wealth of Britain and the strange habits of the Britons. The fact that the only descriptions of the British tribes are those written by their Roman conquerors must be taken into account when considering the historical accuracy of the descriptions:

'The nation of the Britons was still at that time [at Caesar's invasion] *uncivilised and used to fighting only with the Picts and the Hibernians, both still half-naked enemies.'*
An anonymous orator in AD 297.

'Most of the island is low-lying and wooded but there are many hilly areas. It produces corn, cattle, gold, silver and iron. These things are exported along with hides, slaves and dogs suitable for hunting. .. They [the British tribes] *live much like the Gauls but some of their customs are more primitive and barbarous. Thus, for example, some of them are well-supplied with milk but are ignorant of how to make cheese; they know nothing of planting crops or of farming in general. They are ruled by their own kings. For the most part they use chariots in war like some of the Gauls. Their cities are the forests, for they fell trees and fence in large circular enclosures in which they build huts and fence in their cattle, but not for any great length of time. The weather tends to rain rather than snow. Mist is very common, so that for whole days at a stetch the sun is seen only for three or four hours around midday.'*
Strabo

'Claudius waged war on Britain, where no Roman had set foot since the days of Caesar. He also added to the Roman Empire certain islands in the Ocean beyond Britain, called the Orchades and gave his son the name Britannicus.'
Eutropius, a civil servant under the Emperor Valens (AD 364-78).

An important source of documentary evidence for part of the history of the Romans in Britain comes from the work of the historian Dio Cassius. He was a Roman senator from about AD 180. He wrote a history of Rome, in Greek, in 80 volumes, although not all survive. This is part of his account of the uprising of Boudica,

'A fearful catastrophe took place in Britain. Two cities were sacked, 80,000 of their allies persished and the island fell into enemy hands. It was especially shameful for the Romans that it was a woman who brought this on them.'

The end of Roman Britain is described by Zosimus and dated to AD 410. Zosimus was a Greek civil servant who wrote a history of the Roman empire shortly after AD 500.

'Honorius [the Emperor] *sent letters to the British cities, telling them to look after their own defence.'*

Procopius, a Greek civil servant and prefect of Constantinople in AD 562, described the attacks of the Germanic tribes on the Roman Empire in AD 411 writing,

'The army of the Visigoths under Adaulphus marched on Gaul, and Constantine was defeated in battle and died with his sons. Nonetheless the Romans were no longer able to recover Britain, which from that time continued to be ruled by those who seized power.'

In fact it is likely that the area of Britain which had previously been part of the Roman Empire was no longer controlled by one authority.

Later documentary evidence

There are some reference to Roman sites in documents that have survived from Anglo-Saxon or medieval times. For example, the Venerable Bede records that St Cuthbert went to Carlisle in the late seventh century and that the aqueduct was still working.

From the sixteenth century onwards there was renewed interest in ancient sites and a number of antiquaries undertook tours around Britain visiting many of them.

William Stukeley visited the Roman site at Corbridge near Hadrian's Wall in the 1770s and wrote:

'Corbridge is built out of its ruins, which are scattered about there in every house. Before the doors we saw mills [querns for grinding corn], *pieces of shafts of pillars, capitals, bases* [of columns], *many pieces of basso relievo and carvings ... I have endeavoured to do justice to these elegant sculptures, whereas they are generally by others so very ill-done, as to be disgraceful both to Romans, and to Britons, and to antiquity in general.'*

BELOW: Engraving of Richborough Fort by Samuel and Nathaniel Buck, made in 1735. Compare with front cover picture.

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EDUCATIONAL APPROACHES

SEARCHING FOR ROMAN SITES

Maps, place names and buildings

You will find evidence for the Roman occupation of Britain from various sources which pupils can investigate for themselves:

Ordnance Survey maps are a good starting point. Search yourself on large scale maps in the local library, for your own area first. If that does not yield evidence of the Romans, try maps around well-known Roman towns such as Colchester, Lincoln and York. The maps will show evidence such as

- place names (see below)
- Roman roads
- some known Roman settlements or villas.

Place names sometimes reveal Roman origins. For example place names ending in -chester, cester or caster. These may indicate a Roman military site since the word -chester comes originally from the Latin word *castra* meaning camp or fort. It passed into names used today via the Old English -ceaster. Some examples are Manchester, Cirencester, Colchester, Silchester and, of course, Chester.

Another place name example is the Old English *straet* or *stret*. Names beginning Strat-, Stret-, Strad-, Streat-, Street- and Sturt- may indicate the existence of a Roman road or street, for example Streatham in south London.

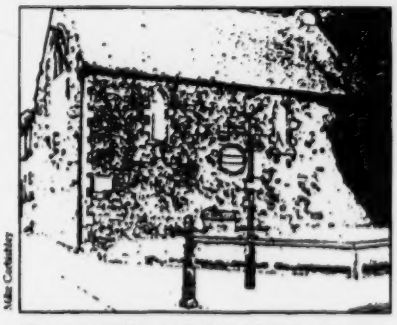
Field names can be found on maps (often with accompanying documents), such as tithe maps, estate maps and sale notices. Some examples are

- Roman Field, Fyfield, Hampshire is the site of a villa.
- Pavement Field is found several times in Cheshire indicating the discovery of Roman mosaic floors.
- Street Acre, Field or Furlong (from various counties) indicating the presence of a Roman road.

A detailed study of Shropshire field names revealed a number of interesting names - The Romans, Bloody Romans, Romans Croft, Romans Tavern, Pavement Croft, for example.

Aerial Commission on the Historical Monuments of England

Aerial photography: One of the most important of the archaeologist's techniques is aerial photography. This photograph shows the field system (a), road (b) and the estate boundary (c) of a Roman villa at St Osyth, south of Colchester.



Mike Corbishley

The upstanding end of the Roman theatre at Colchester was re-used as part of the medieval chapel of St Helen. The building may even have been a Roman chapel.

Street names in towns and villages will sometimes indicate Roman remains. Ancient names may refer back to Roman origins, such as The Pavement in York or to town gates which may have been Roman in origin but were re-used in the medieval period - Headgate (meaning the main gate) in Colchester.

Buildings from the Roman period still survive as part of other more modern structures. Look out for typical Roman building materials (such as red tiles) and arch or doorway constructions.

The Roman Builder's Handbook

This activity is designed to help pupils understand how a Roman building was constructed. Supply pupils with a plan of a site you are visiting. Pupils are asked to investigate the ruins on the ground and are to make an imaginative reconstruction using the handbook. (opposite).

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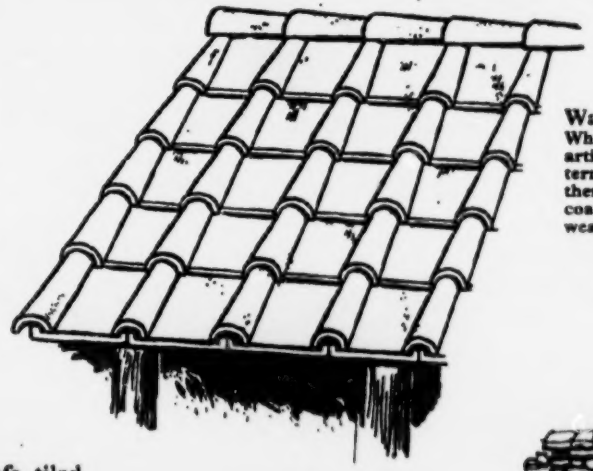
THE ROMAN BUILDERS' HANDBOOK



Roofs, tiled

In normal circumstances use a strong timber roof frame and cover with fired clay tiles. Tiles are long lasting and weatherproof. They are very heavy, so make sure your timber frame is strong enough. Ask your supplier for *tegulae* (those are the flat tiles with ridges at each side) and *imbrices* (the half-round ones to cover over the ridges).

Walls, decorated (rich clients only)

When walls have been plastered, hire an artist to show your client samples of wall patterns. Only suggest this to rich clients. Tell them it will impress their friends. A plain coat of colour will have to do for the less wealthy.

Floors, mosaic

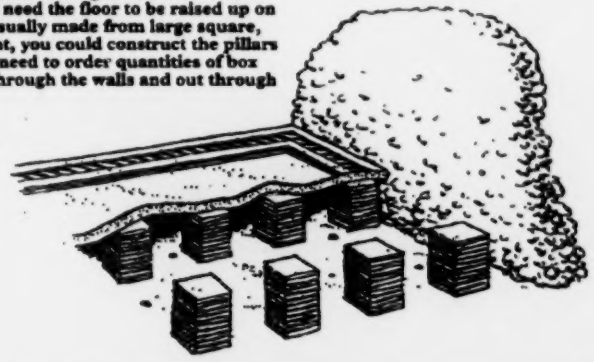
Superior type of floor for main rooms or bath blocks. You will need a specialist to design and construct these floors. The mosaic workers will probably cut their own little stone or tile cubes (they call them *tesserae*) on site. Make sure they grout properly and polish the floor smooth. Wash the floor before you show your client. If you want cheaper floors like this (perhaps for corridors) use cubes of tile.

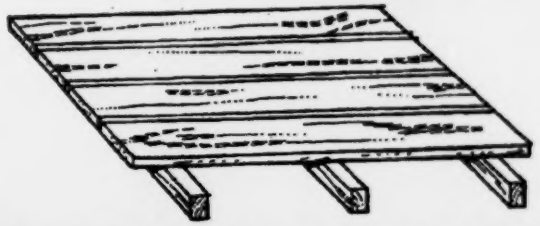
Walls, for carrying weight

Use stone walls for all outside walls and walls which have to take some part in carrying the weight either of the roof or of the upstairs floors. In areas where stone is in short supply, use stone for low foundation walls and build the walls of timber frames.

Floors, for central heating

Clients who want under-floor heating with hot air circulating from a furnace will need the floor to be raised up on small pillars. These are usually made from large square, or round, tiles. If you want, you could construct the pillars from stone. You will also need to order quantities of box tiles to carry the hot air through the walls and out through the edges of the roof.





Floors, wooden

Wooden floors can be used for storage or cellar areas but you can also use other materials such as clay or gravel. You will need to make sure your construction workers ram the floor down very hard. If your client requires a very hardwearing and waterproof floor, you will need to make a strong mortar mixed with little pieces of broken tile. If you have a specialist supplier in your area, ask for *opus signinum*.

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MAKING COMPARISONS

Military sites

Visit a military site of a different period and compare/contrast -

A medieval castle which was built as a defensive refuge unlike a Roman fort which was a base from which the soldiers went out to attack.

A modern barracks. What features would be common to barracks and Roman fort?

- Protective perimeter
- Sentry on duty
- Main road access to allow soldiers to get to the perimeter and out quickly
- Presence of soldiers at leisure in surrounding area
- Development of garrison towns such as Catterick or Aldershot
- Does the NAAFI (Navy, Army and Air Force Institution - a social club and shop for service people) parallel the shops and inns of the *vicus* (the civilian settlement which grew up outside most Roman forts)?

Roman baths

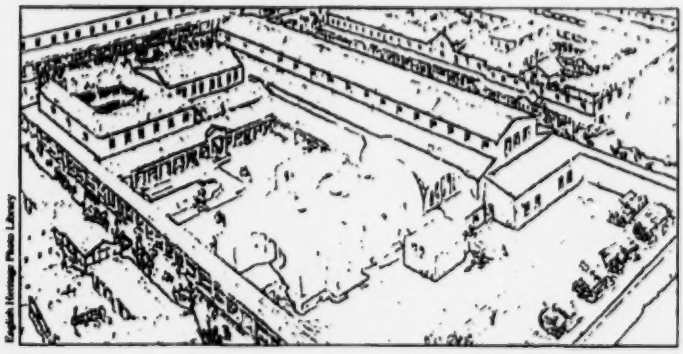
One way to de-mystify Roman baths is to make comparisons to a modern equivalent. Ask your pupils to tell you what rooms or facilities they expect to find in a typical leisure centre, and make a list of them. Then relate the functions of the rooms to those found on site. The example used here is from Wroxeter Roman City.

LEISURE CENTRE	FUNCTION	WROXETER
adaptable space for exercises and court games such as badminton	exercising	basilica
changing rooms	changing clothes	changing rooms
showers	getting clean, relaxing	frigidarium, tepidarium and caldarium
squash courts	exercising	no equivalent
swimming pool	swimming	piscina, though more for cold dip than swimming
viewing areas	spectating	no equivalent, visitors could chat to people in any of the rooms
sportswear shop	selling luxury goods	market hall, may have sold quality goods
vending machines	selling food	market hall, sold food
toilets	going to the lavatory	latrines

Villas

One good approach for investigating Roman villas is to ask pupils before the visit to list all the rooms in their houses or flat and whether they have also got got features such as garages, gardens, yards, balconies. On the site visit they can see which of the rooms and facilities they can find at the villa and comment on any differences. Another approach is to give a list of features and ask them to discover what the Roman equivalent would have been, for example:

Modern	Roman equivalent
Bath	Bath house
Tap	Fountain/spring/water tank
Wallpaper	Painted wall plaster
Carpet	Mosaic
Tiled roof	Tiled roof
Garden shed	Store houses
Central heating boiler	Furnace
Radiators and heating pipes	Hypocaust and flue tiles
Brick walls	Stone walls
Windows	Windows (either glazed or with grilles and shutters)
Drains	Drains
Microwave	Oven built into wall



English Heritage Photo Library

Artist's impression of the public baths at Wroxeter Roman City as it may have looked in the second century AD. An aerial photograph of the same area (although from a different viewpoint) is on page 8.

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ROMAN SITES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Art

Many of the skills in the art curriculum are appropriate to study of a Roman site. In particular pupils are required to have the opportunity to record observations, to observe pattern and texture in natural and man-made forms and to recognise images and artefacts as sources of ideas for their own work. The different textures which can be found on many sites can provide suitable material for taking rubbings (with the Custodian's permission) - for example, dressed stone, rough stone and tile will produce different effects.

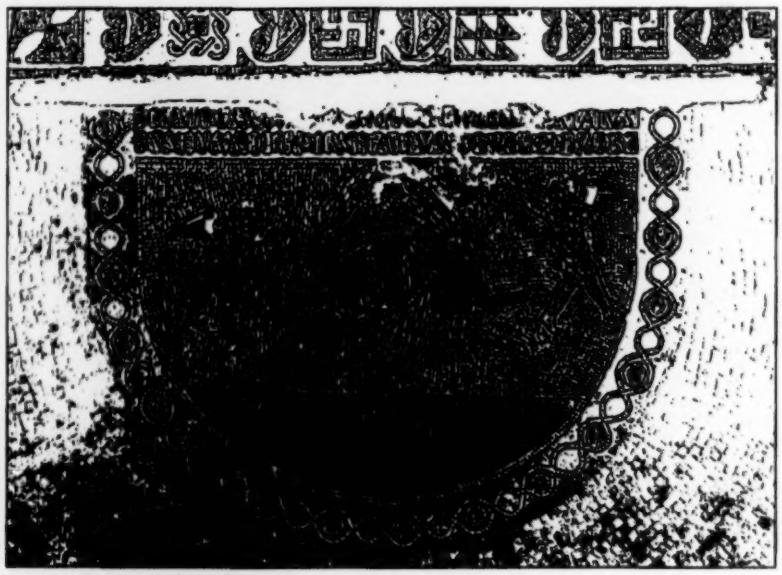
A site such as North Leigh Villa in Oxfordshire with fine mosaics can be used to study the complex geometrical motifs used and pupils can also investigate ways in which the mosaics reflect the time and place in which they were made. In the classroom, pupils can use pre-cut squares of coloured paper to recreate their own mosaics discovering how difficult it can be, for example, to achieve smooth curves with mosaic tiles.

If you are visiting a site such as Bath or Colchester where there were fine classical buildings, you can help pupils gain a knowledge of the components of classical architecture, and how they relate to each other, by photocopying details of classical architecture from books on architecture and getting children to cut out details such as steps, columns, pediments and friezes, and 'create' their own classical buildings using these components.

English

As recording, both in written form and using graphical means, is one of the most important parts of archaeology, English skills are very relevant to a visit to a Roman site. As well as recording descriptions of the buildings and finds on a site, a Roman site can be used as the basis for imaginative work or literature work. Pupils should experience myths, legends and traditional stories. As part of school work a Roman site could provide a setting for reading or telling Roman myths - the mosaic at Lullingstone Roman Villa in Kent, for example, provides a starting point for the myths surrounding Jupiter, the greatest of the Roman gods.

In written and spoken English the concept of preparing material for different audiences is important. Preparing a site guide for a particular audience is one way in which pupils can be encouraged to focus in on the site.



English Heritage Photo Library

Jupiter mosaic, Lullingstone.

History

As well as the specific historical knowledge which can be gained through a visit to a Roman site, the visit can be used to develop general historical skills and broaden historical understanding. A key skill identified in the curriculum is for pupils to set their study of the past in a chronological framework. A very appropriate technique for this is a timeline.

Preparing a guide for visually-impaired visitors

You may want to:

- Prepare an audio guide, and record a tape which the visitor can play back on a 'Walkman'
- Produce a Braille guide
- Prepare a 'large print' guide for visitors who have some vision

You will need to point out in your guide:

- Health and safety - for example where there are uneven surfaces or obstructions which visually impaired people might trip over.
- What is of interest in each area of the site, explaining things that are difficult to see
- Where there are things that can be touched safely - for example marks on a piece of cut stone from the chisels of Roman masons.

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Design and Technology

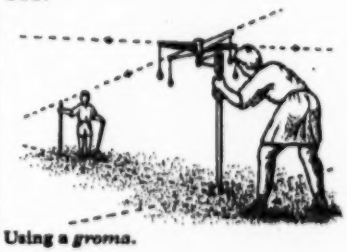
The design and technology curriculum has an emphasis on studying and making simple things, evaluating products and identifying strengths and weaknesses. The remains of Roman buildings often provide clues to how they were built, which are much more difficult to see, or are hidden, in modern buildings.

Maths

A visit to a Roman site lends itself to the maths curriculum particularly in the areas of measuring and of representing data with graphs and diagrams. For example, choosing appropriate units of length and make suitable estimates with them in everyday situations. The range of scales of things to be measured on a site gives scope for use of a variety of measuring and estimating techniques.

Roman measurement

Roman surveyors used a *groma* to mark out straight lines and right angles. It consisted of a pole with a pivoted right angle extension at the top. Each arm has a plumb bob.



Using a *groma*.

Libra was the Roman pound weight (327.45 grammes) and was divided into 12 *unciae* (ounces)

Sextarius for liquid measure (but also used for measuring corn) which was just under a pint (0.96 of a pint)

Pes a Roman foot which measures 29.46 centimetres (11.6 inches) which was divided into 12 *unciae* (inches)

Mille passuum the Roman mile which was short of the English mile by 132 yards (1536 metres)

Information Technology

Within the area of using IT equipment and software to communicate ideas and information there are many useful exercises which can be carried out to follow up work at a Roman site. These could include:

- Using a package which allows you to produce a newspaper to record the site visit. One group of children could act as reporters interviewing the other children about what they find out during their site visit.
- Using a graphic package to present data, for example, measurements of buildings on the site.
- Use of a home design package to reconstruct rooms from a Roman site and furnish them as they would have been in Roman times.

Science

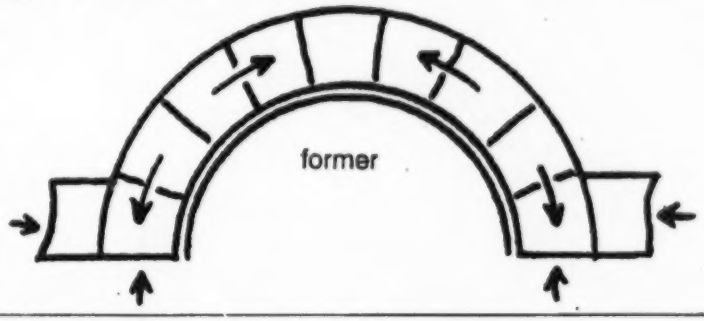
Within the science curriculum there is scope for investigating a number of areas of Roman life, such as public health and hygiene, the uses of materials such as glass, wood, wool, and the available technologies for lighting and heating.

Measuring stones: Groups of pupils can examine the stone walls of different buildings and measure the lengths of a sample of stone, drawing a graph of the distribution of sizes of stone and working out the different sizes of stone in different courses, perhaps showing how the Roman builders deliberately selected stones for particular purposes.

Building an arch

Round arches are characteristic of Roman architecture. They were used for bridges, doors, windows, ventilation holes, aqueducts. The reason for using arches is that in engineering terms they are very strong structures. A well put-together arch is much stronger than a flat piece of stone simply bridging a gap.

You can easily show how an arch works practically in the classroom. Make a model of a stone arch with wedge shaped blocks made from plasticine, clay or cut from wood. A 'former' made from a bent piece of card or half a plastic pipe is used to build the arch on and removed when it is finished. A card template made as shown helps get the right shape for the blocks.



Geography

It is impossible to understand a site where people have lived or worked or worshipped without understanding how the site fits into its landscape.

- Why was it built where it is?
- Where did people get water from?
- Was the site good for defence?
- Was there wood or stone available for building houses.

A geographical study of the area around a site might involve the use of Ordnance Survey maps to look at the contours and see the slope of the land, and to look for the nearest river or stream. Children can be encouraged to prepare their own sketch maps of the location of the site.

Music

Music is a good way in which children can be encouraged to express feelings about a site and to create a sense of atmosphere. You may be able to create a piece of music inspired by a visit to a site and, with the permission of the custodian, return to the site to perform it. Although no Roman music, as such, has survived, they had a range of instruments, including harps, lyres, cymbals, tambourines, panpipes, and cornets and other brass instruments.

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OPPOSITE: The Ermine Street Guard are a re-enactment group who take pride in the accuracy of their uniforms, equipment and weapons. (Mike Corbishley)

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This book shows teachers how to use the evidence left behind by the Roman occupation of Britain. It looks in detail at forts, villas, towns, industrial sites, temples and burials, with resource sheets for use in the classroom covering the army, home life, crafts and industries and buildings. It suggests teaching approaches across the curriculum, from understanding aerial photographs and finding evidence in place names, to investigating ruined sites and using a 'Roman builder's handbook'.

Written by Iain Watson, Durham Studies Manager in the Arts, Libraries and Museums Department of Durham City Council, who has also written teacher's handbooks for English Heritage on Hadrian's Wall and Lullingstone Roman Villa. This book is one of our *Education on Site* series, suggesting educational strategies for the use of historic landscapes, sites and buildings.

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